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TABLE DECORATION—AUGUST

The Book of the Home

A Practical Guide to Household Management

Produced under the General Editorship of

H. C. DAVIDSON

Assisted by

OVER ONE HUNDRED SPECIALISTS

With Coloured Plates and Numerous Illustrations

Divisional-Vol. VI

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EMBROIDERY (*Continued*).

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READING AND CORRESPONDENCE.

HOUSEHOLD REPAIRS.

ENTERTAINING.

LOCOMOTION.

DOMESTIC PETS.

HOME OCCUPATIONS FOR PROFIT.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

DIV.-VOL. VI.

PLATES.

It is not easy with ordinary tools to cut photograph and miniature frames accurately from wood, or from cardboard stout enough to make a suitable foundation for them. If a paper pattern is prepared, any picture-framer or mount-cutter will copy it in the material desired, and, if necessary, will bevel the edges. A white-wood photograph frame makes a good and cheap background for covering with embroidery. Novices should remember to see that the central space in any frame is made somewhat larger than

Fig. 423.—Embroidered Cover for Blotting-book.

appears to be necessary, as the covering of the mount will slightly intrude upon it.

Embroidered Caskets.—In addition to the knick-knacks already named and figured in these pages, caskets covered with embroidery should also be mentioned. They may range in size from a large chest to a ring-box.

The framework for good embroidery must be worthy of it, and various repositories now make a speciality of boxes, large and small, of suitable wood or cardboard properly put together, and especially intended for covering. Miniature chests of drawers to hold small treasures are dainty and useful when nicely made.

Various accessories are necessary, and should not be grudged by those who like to do a thing well. Metal hinges, fastenings, escutcheons, handles, corners, and so on, if not obtainable from the makers of the caskets and boxes, can be bought from dealers in fretwork materials. But here again, if the novice find herself unequal to such carpentry as is involved, the work should be sent on to an expert for completion.

Wall Pockets.—A welcome touch of colour is sometimes given in a room by a wall-pocket. This term employed generally may be said to

Fig. 424.—Examples of Embroidery. (From the Royal Irish School of Art Needlework.)

include hanging receptacles for holding many different articles, such as magazines, letters, keys, duster, or feather-brush. The variety of form and make is, of course, great, and the fabrics chosen must be selected in accordance with their intended position. For use in a bedroom a washing material seems appropriate; in a sitting-room, on the contrary, richness of fabric and brightness of colour are allowable.

The simplest form of wall-pocket resembles a large envelope with the top flap extended, the lower pieces being slightly bowed out to allow of easy access to the contents. It can be contrived out of an embroidered strip of silk or plush, suitably lined, stiffened with buckram, and surrounded with cord concealing the firm stitches which sew it into shape. Horn-shaped pockets made of a twisted piece of buckram covered and lined are also familiar and favourite shapes.

Other Knick-knacks.—Many more knick-knacks might be mentioned as affording scope for the art of the embroideress. In general make and principle they would be more or less similar to those already alluded to here. Although details of form and ornamentation vary considerably, there is little need therefore to mention what are merely matters of course,

or else knick-knacks of passing interest devised to meet the craving for novelty.

Knick-knack Models.—A few examples of dainty knick-knacks, made at the Royal Irish School of Art Needlework, are shown in fig. 424. The photograph-frame is covered with parchment embroidered in a characteristic Celtic design. The material used is gold thread, several parallel lines of it being couched down with stitches of silk at frequent intervals. Two colours only, red and green, are employed.

The book-cover to the left shows a naturalistic design of moss-roses and leaves tied with a flowing ribbon and embroidered in fine silks on vellum. Its daintiness renders it a fit binding for a book of poems.

The cushion is a specimen of modern crewel-work copied from an old design. The bird and the spray of conventional flowers and leaves are in somewhat bright colours, neutralized by the soft biscuit-coloured *satin de luxe* upon which the embroidery is worked.

THE USE OF EMBROIDERY SCRAPS.

All workers accumulate a store of scraps left from large undertakings, and these can often be turned to account satisfactorily. Patchwork is not here in question, but, on the contrary, only such work as shall not have any appearance of scrappiness. Pieces of silks, satins, wide ribbons, and other rich materials are the easiest to utilize. The smallest scraps can be shaped to form the principal features of some appliqué device previously arranged on a background of serge or other appropriate material. The design can be completed by connecting the scattered appliqué pieces with stitches. If rosettes are made of scraps of the softer silks by doubling a strip and gathering the cut edges together closely, they can afterwards be placed at intervals round (for instance) the border of a table-cloth, or they can be used for decorating duster-pockets, spill-cups, and many other fanciful trifles.

Pin-cushions, needle-books, and pen-wipers are all often made of scraps; they vary so greatly in form and make that it is needless to discuss them further. For covering books, photo-cases, boxes, and caskets larger sections of material are required. If those available are too small to use alone, plush corners or bands made from other scraps will serve at once as ornamentation and supplement. Reticules and bags can be contrived in a variety of forms. They also can well be constructed from pieces of several materials by using one fabric for lining, another for frills, a third for appliqué ornaments, and so on. Ribbons, even if narrow, will prove serviceable; for instance, cushion-covers or chair-backs are made up of them by sewing lengths together on a lining to form one piece, while if the background is of such a material as may be allowed

to show, the ribbons on it can be curved or vandyked in some set pattern.

Napkin-rings can easily be made of ribbon embroidered with an initial and other decorations, and made up over a foundation of cardboard. Rings for carrying music can be similarly contrived, but should be larger and provided with suspension cords.

Scraps of woollen materials serve as linings and interlinings, or, if they are handsomely embroidered, they can in many cases be used instead of silks and satins.

Linen and cotton pieces make covers and trimmings for baskets, cycle-saddle covers, and centres for d'oyleys to be edged with lace. Odds and ends of embroidery silks serve to stitch pin-cushions and to embroider small articles. Stray balls of wool will work up into cuffs, boot-linings, slippers, knee-caps, toy reins and whips, rattles, and Christmas stockings (made harlequin-wise of any scraps wound together), while shorter lengths will form children's balls, fringe tassels, or pompons. Small pieces of almost any material are also useful for making dolls' clothes, and for numberless knick-knacks besides those already mentioned.

MAKING RUGS.

Home-made rugs may range in size from those large enough to carpet a room, to slips for kneelers or hassock-covers. They may be adapted for use in the bath-room, balcony, or verandah, or as coverings for chairs and sofas.

Rugs in Smyrna knitting, when completed satisfactorily, have a more professional look than other home-made rugs. All the materials should be obtained together, as special kinds are needed, scraps and odds and ends not being available. There must be a supply of strong soft knitting-thread, and also of proper wools, a pair of coarse knitting-needles, and a staff. The last is like an oblong ruler, deeply grooved down the centre of one surface. Over this the wool must be wound very evenly, never overlapping; the strands are then all cut through by inserting one blade of the scissors in the groove and cutting along it from end to end. This provides a number of short strands of wool of equal length. With the needles and thread a row should be knitted plainly, and then a strand of the cut wool caught in and firmly secured with each of the stitches of every following alternate row. If closely worked, a thick woolly surface is obtained hardly inferior to that of a manufactured carpet. Full details of the method of knitting Smyrna rugs are provided with the materials; so also are good reliable patterns, for the working out of which wools of the necessary colours are supplied. As the rugs are formed of strips, to be sewn together afterwards, they are not difficult to hold, and even an indifferent worker, with practice, can make sure of good results. Scraps

of cloth are sometimes knitted up in a somewhat similar manner, but have, of course, a far different appearance. Other rugs are made upon coarse Penelope canvas, also with lengths of wool or with thrums knotted in with a crochet-hook. When all the surface is covered, the ends should be clipped to get an even pile. Smyrna knitted rugs also require clipping if they are the work of a beginner, but an experienced hand will work so evenly that few such finishing touches are needed. An old rug can often be restored to its original brightness by shearing off the soiled tips of the pile. Yet another plan is to thread the wool through a needle and to knot it into canvas, working over a wand or ruler to ensure an even length in the stitches.

Pieces of cloth cut into small strips (about 3 inches long) make useful rough rugs if worked into strong holland or Hessian. There is now a special tool which holds the section of cloth, takes it through the Hessian, and leaves it there securely in place, thus saving the labour formerly necessary of stitching every scrap. The colours must be well arranged and should form a pattern, if these rugs are to be satisfactory. Rugs knitted by amateurs are often a little uneven. They can be put straight afterwards by stretching and nailing them out evenly the wrong side upwards, and rubbing over the back with thin glue. When this is dry, the whole work will probably be in shape. A lining of holland is also effectual in keeping a rug from curling up and in concealing deficiencies.

KNITTING.

In these knitting-patterns the following abbreviations are used:—For knit plain, k.; for purl, p.; for knit 2 together, decrease; for increase by putting the thread over the needle, over; for repeat the following stitches, *.

Knitted Quilt (fig. 425).—Cast on 2. *1st row*, p. *2nd row*, over, k. *3rd row*, over, p. *4th and 5th rows*, over, k. *6th row*, over, p. *7th row*, over, k. *8th row*, over, p. *9th row*, over, k. 2, decrease, over twice, decrease, k. 3. *10th row*, over, p. 5, k. 1, p. 4. *11th row*, over, k. *12th row*, over, p. *13th row*, over, k. *14th row*, over, p. *15th row*, over, * k. 2, decrease, over twice, decrease; repeat from *, k. 3 at end. *16th row*, over, *, p. 5, k.; repeat from *, p. 4 at end. *17th to 38th row*, repeat rows 11 to 16 three times, then rows 11 to 14 once. *39th and 40th rows*, over, k. *41st row*, over, p. *42nd and 43rd rows*, over, k. *44th row*, over, p. *45th to 50th row*, over, k. *51st row*, over, k. 5, * turn the work, cast on 6, turn again, k. 8; repeat from * five times, but at end k. 6 only. *52nd row*, over, k. 6, * p. 6, k. 8; repeat from * five times, but at end k. 6 only. *53rd row*, over, k. 6, * decrease, k. 2, decrease, k. 8; repeat from * five times, but at end k. 7 only. *54th row*, over, k. 7, * p. 4, k. 8; repeat from * five times, but at end k. 7. *55th row*, over, k. 7, * decrease twice, k. 8; repeat from * five times. *56th row*, over, k. 7, * p. 3 together, k. 7;

repeat from * five times, but at end k. 8. *57th to 61st row*, over, k. *62nd row*, over, p. *63rd and 64th rows*, over k. *65th row*, p. *66th and 67th rows*, decrease, k. *68th row*, p. 2 together, p. *69th to 72nd row*, decrease, k. *73rd row*, decrease, k. 7, * over, k. 1, slip 1, decrease, pull slip-stitch over, k. 1, over, k. 4; repeat from * four times, but at end k. 8. *74th row*, decrease, k. 6, * p. 5, k. 4; repeat from * four times, but at end k. 8. *75th*

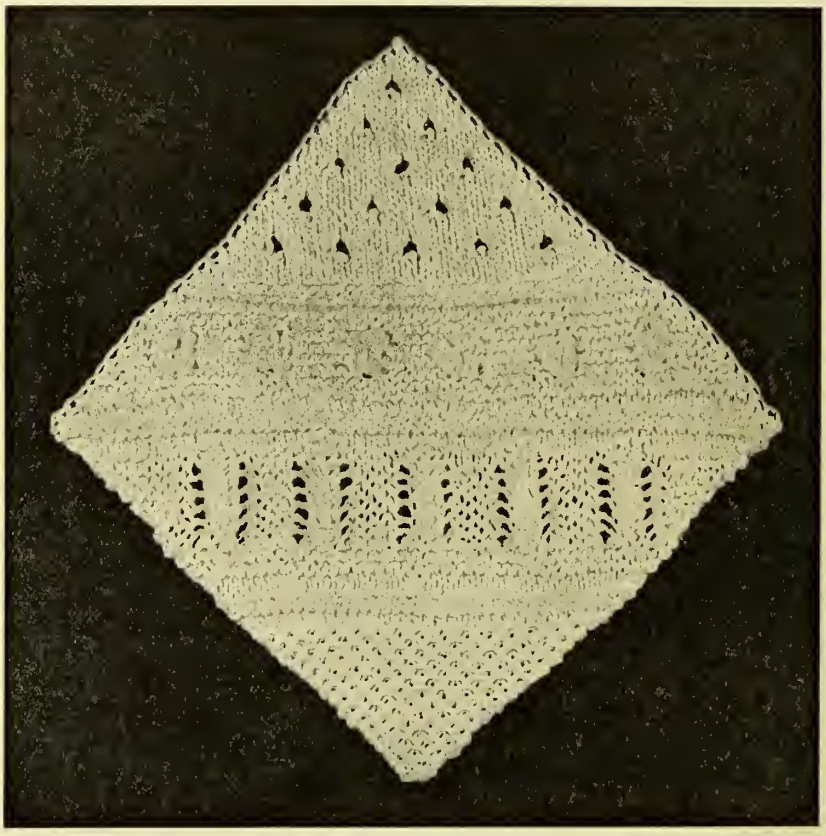


Fig. 425.—Pattern of Knitted Quilt.

row, decrease, k. 6, * over, k. 1, decrease 2 (as above), k. 1, over, k. 4; repeat from * four times, but at end k. 7. *76th row*, decrease, k. 5, * p. 5, k. 4; repeat from * four times, but at end k. 7. *77th row*, decrease, k. 5, * over, k. 1, decrease 2, k. 1, over, k. 4; repeat from * four times, at end k. 6. *78th row*, decrease, k. 4, * p. 5, k. 4; repeat from * four times, at end k. 6. *79th row*, decrease, k. 4, * over, k. 1, decrease 2, k. 1, over, k. 4; repeat from * four times, at end k. 5. *80th row*, decrease, k. 3, * p. 5, k. 4; repeat from * four times, at end k. 5. *81st row*, decrease k. 3, * over, k. 1, decrease 2, k. 1, over, k. 4; repeat from * four times. *82nd row*, decrease, k. 2, * p. 5, k. 4; repeat from * four times. *83rd row*, decrease, k. 2, * over, k. 1, decrease 2, k. 1, over, k. 4; repeat from * four times, at the end

k. 3. *84th to 89th row,* decrease, k. *90th row,* p. 2 together, p. *91st and 92nd rows,* decrease, k. *93rd row,* p. 2 together, p. *94th to 96th row,* like *91st to 93rd row. 97th row,* decrease, * slip 1 the purl way, p.; repeat from *. *98th row,* decrease, p. Repeat the last two rows till but three stitches remain. Cast off.

Knitted Sofa-Blanket (fig. 426).—Cast on and purl 2 stitches. *1st row,* increase (by working twice in the first stitch), k. 1. *2nd row,* increase, p. 2. *3rd row,* increase, k. 3. *4th row,* increase, k. *5th row,* increase, p. *6th row,* increase, k. *7th to 48th row,* work the last three rows fourteen times more. *49th row,* increase, k. 49. *50th row,* k. 1, * over,

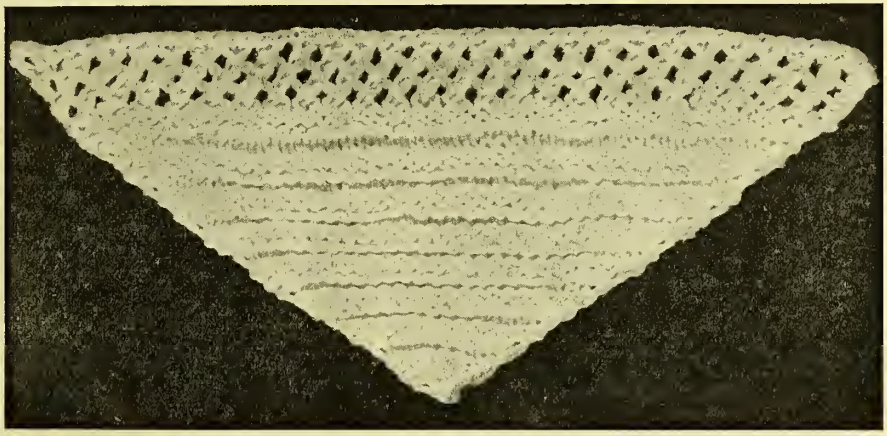


Fig. 426—Pattern of Knitted Sofa-blanket.

decrease, repeat from *. *51st row,* increase, k. 49, increase. *52nd row,* like 50th row. *53rd row,* increase, k. 51, increase. *54th row,* like 50th row. *55th row,* k. Cast off. Four of these sections should be sewn together to make a square.

Knitted Vest or Under-Bodice.—This is a sleeveless bodice knitted almost without seam, and intended to be slipped on over the head. The directions are for a vest of medium size; the pattern is so simple as to be easily reduced or increased.

Use shawl, single Berlin, or other wool of similar texture, and 4 steel pins No. 10. Cast on 216 stitches and knit 40 ribbed rounds, knitting 5 and purling 4 alternately. Work 10 plain rounds. *51st round,* over, decrease, repeat all round. Repeat the last eleven rounds five times, then turn and work backwards and forwards in rows of 108 stitches. Ten rows plain knitting. *11th row,* over, decrease, repeat. Ten rows plain knitting, twenty rows of ribbing, alternately knitting 2 and purling 2 stitches. Knit 20, cast off so as to leave but 20 stitches, and on these work 100 plain rows; then cast off. Knit 100 plain rows also on the 20 stitches left at the other end of the row. These bands form the shoulder-straps. On the 108 stitches left when the round was halved work in rows as on the first set

of 108 stitches. After the 20 rows of ribbing cast off and sew the ends of the shoulder-straps on to the first and last 20 stitches of the row. Border the neck and shoulder with a narrow band of crochet, making the second round of it sufficiently open to admit of the insertion of a ribbon to draw up the neck and tie at the size required.

Knitted Lace.—The following pattern is suitable, if worked in wool, for edging shawls, and also in knitting cotton for a quilt border.

Cast on 11 stitches. *1st row*, over, k. 8, over, decrease, k. 1. *2nd row*, k. 3, over, decrease, k. 5, over, decrease. *3rd row*, over, k. 9, over, decrease, k. 1. *4th row*, k. 3, over, decrease, k. 4, over, decrease, over, decrease. *5th row*, over, k. 10, over, decrease, k. 1. *6th row*, k. 3, over, decrease, k. 3, * over, decrease; repeat from * twice. *7th row*, over, k. 11, over, decrease, k. 1. *8th row*, k. 3, over, decrease, k. 2, * over, decrease; repeat from * three times. *9th row*, over, k. 12, over, decrease, k. 1. *10th row*, k. 3, over, decrease, k. 1, * over, decrease; repeat from * four times. *11th row*, over, decrease, k. 11, over, decrease, k. 1. *12th row*, k. 3, over, decrease, k. 2, * over, decrease; repeat from * twice, over, decrease 2. *13th row*, over, decrease, k. 10, over, decrease, k. 1. *14th row*, k. 3, over, decrease, k. 3, over, decrease, over, decrease, over, decrease 2. *15th row*, over, decrease, k. 9, over, decrease, k. 1. *16th row*, k. 3, over, decrease, k. 4, over, decrease, over, decrease 2. *17th row*, over, decrease, k. 8, over, decrease, k. 1. *18th row*, k. 3, over, decrease, k. 5, over, decrease 2. *19th row*, over, decrease, k. 7, over, decrease, k. 1. *20th row*, k. 3, over, decrease, k. 5, decrease; repeat from the first row.

Knitted Stockings and Socks.—Stockings and socks are knitted with wool, and, less frequently, with silk specially intended for the purpose. Besides Andalusian, which is a useful, comparatively coarse make of wool, there are many varieties of stocking yarns and mixtures from which choice can be made. The wools range from the coarsest heather mixtures, for shooting stockings, to delicate soft kinds suited only for infants' clothing. The pins or wires, four or five in number, should be somewhat fine, to ensure a close web.

There is no difficulty in shaping stockings and socks, for the width of the top of the hose regulates the length and depth of the other portions. It is a good plan to work from a new and well-fitting woven stocking or sock. Having also procured wool and pins of suitable sizes, make a strip in plain knitting to ascertain the number of stitches and of rows required to form one square inch. It is then easy, by a little calculation, to copy exactly the size and shape of the pattern stocking.

Socks and stockings are begun at the top, often with a fancy hem from three to six inches deep, which is not included in measuring the other portions of the work. A ribbed top is easiest to knit, and consists merely of a certain number of rows of two purled and three knitted stitches alternately, or of two purled and two knitted stitches alternately.

A double or hem-top is contrived by knitting three inches plain, then a round of holes (by working thread forward, knit two together all the way

round), and then another three inches of plain work. The cast-on stitches are picked up on other pins and the two sets knitted off together, one stitch from each needle at the same time. When this hem has thus been folded along the line of holes, these form a small notched heading.

Stockings for men have often a top worked in several colours of wool, and in a pattern of diamonds or checks. As this portion is to be turned over, the right side of it must be on the wrong side of the leg, otherwise one or other part will be inside out when the stocking is completed. The simplest way of effecting this is, when the top is done, to turn the work inside out and knit in rounds in the reverse direction to that before adopted.

The following is a simple check pattern for stocking tops. Choose wool of two colours, say brown and crimson. Cast on with brown wool any number of stitches divisible by ten, and knit a plain round. The *2nd and 5 following rounds* are plain—5 brown and 5 crimson stitches alternately. The *8th and 5 following rounds* are worked in the same manner, but with crimson over brown and brown over crimson squares. Repeat these last 12 rounds for the depth required, remembering always to cross the wools loosely on the wrong side of the work.

The legs and feet of hose can be knitted plainly, in open work (for ladies' and children's hose), or in a fine rib. The latter stitch makes them more elastic and also more closely fitting. Plainly-knitted hosiery has always one purl or seam stitch carried down the centre of the back of the leg, and on either side of this are worked the decreasings which regulate the shape.

Cycling and shooting stockings, and also socks for men and youths, have often the leg worked in cable knitting. This is begun some inches below a top of plain ribbing of 10 plain and 3 purl stitches alternately.

The Cable.—* Slip 5 stitches on to an extra pin and keep them in front of the work, knit 5, then knit the 5 stitches from the extra pin, purl 3, and repeat. Work 6 rounds of ribbing, and repeat from the beginning.

There are various ways of knitting heels. Some workers make the flap by working some forty rows backwards and forwards on about forty-one stitches, and then decrease in every row on both sides of a centre of eleven stitches until only that number remain on the pin.

The following forms a more comfortable heel:—Work the flap as above; knit to within one stitch of the centre, decrease, knit 1, *turn*; knit 1, decrease, knit 1, *turn*; knit 2, decrease, knit 1, *turn*; knit 3, decrease, knit 1, *turn*: continue thus to work one more stitch before the decreasing in every row till all the stitches are worked off. If the stocking is in plain knitting, the return rows of the heel-flap must be purled, not knitted plain.

When the heel flap is knitted and then decreased to ten or twelve stitches, the instep must be worked. For this pick up on the heel needle as many stitches as there are rows down the side of the flap, and knit two stitches off the next needle which has still the instep stitches upon it. Work the stitches remaining on both instep needles on to one pin, except the last two,

which should be knitted off on to a new needle. With this latter take up also as many stitches as there are rows along the other side of the heel-flap and half the stitches left from the heel-flap from the next or first needle. After this proceed in rounds, decreasing in every other round at the end of the first and beginning of the third needle, and working off the second or instep needle plainly till the number of stitches requisite for the foot is attained. Work a sufficient number of inches without decreasing; then begin the toe. The following is a good pattern:—*1st round*, knit 6, decrease, repeat. Seven plain rounds. *9th round*, knit 5, decrease, repeat. Six plain rounds. Continue in this proportion till: *31st round*, knit 1, decrease. Two plain rounds. *34th round*, knit 2 together all round. Divide the remaining stitches on to two pins and cast them off together, in pairs. Another well-shaped toe is formed by decreasing three times in every other round, putting the intakes at regular intervals apart.

CROCHET.

To save space the following abbreviations have been used throughout these directions:—*Double crochet*, d. c.; *treble crochet*, t.; chain, ch.

Single crochet:—There is always one loop on the hook when work is begun; insert the hook in the work, put the wool over the hook and draw it through both loops.

Double crochet:—Insert the hook in work, put wool over hook, and draw it through the one loop, put wool over hook, and draw it through the remaining two loops.

Treble crochet:—Put wool over hook, hook into work, wool over hook, hook through one loop, then twice alternately wool over hook, and draw through two loops.

Crochet Lace (fig. 427):—This, worked with white cotton and a fine hook, is suitable for edging tea-cloths, toilet-covers, sheets, and towels. In coarse unbleached cotton it is appropriate for a bracket, curtain, or window valance.

Begin with 66 chain. *1st row*, 1 t. in the fourth chain, 5 t. in the next 5 ch., * 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 19 t., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 t., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 13 t., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 2 t. in the last two stitches. *2nd row*, 3 ch., 1 t. on the second t., 5 ch., 13 t. on the 13 t., 5 ch., 1 t. on t., 5 ch., 19 t. on 19 t., 5 ch., 7 t. *3rd row*, 9 ch., miss 4, 5 t. on the last 5 ch., 1 t. on next t., * 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 13 t., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 13 t., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 t., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 7 t., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 2 t. *4th row*, 3 ch., 1 t. on second t., 5 ch., 7 t., 5 ch., 1 t., 5 ch., 13 t., 5 ch., 13 t., 5 ch., 7 t. *5th row*, 9 ch., miss 4, 5 t. on last 5 ch., 1 t. on next t., * 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 13 t., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 7 t., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 13 t.,

* 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 t., repeat from the last * twice, 1 t. *6th row,* 3 ch., 1 t., 5 ch., 1 t., 5 ch., 1 t., 5 ch., 13 t., 5 ch., 7 t., 5 ch., 13 t., 5 ch., 7 t. *7th row,* 9 ch., miss 4, 5 t. on next 5 ch., 1 t., * 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 13 t., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2., 1 t., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 7 t., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 t., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 13 t., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 t., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 2 t. *8th row,* 3 ch.,

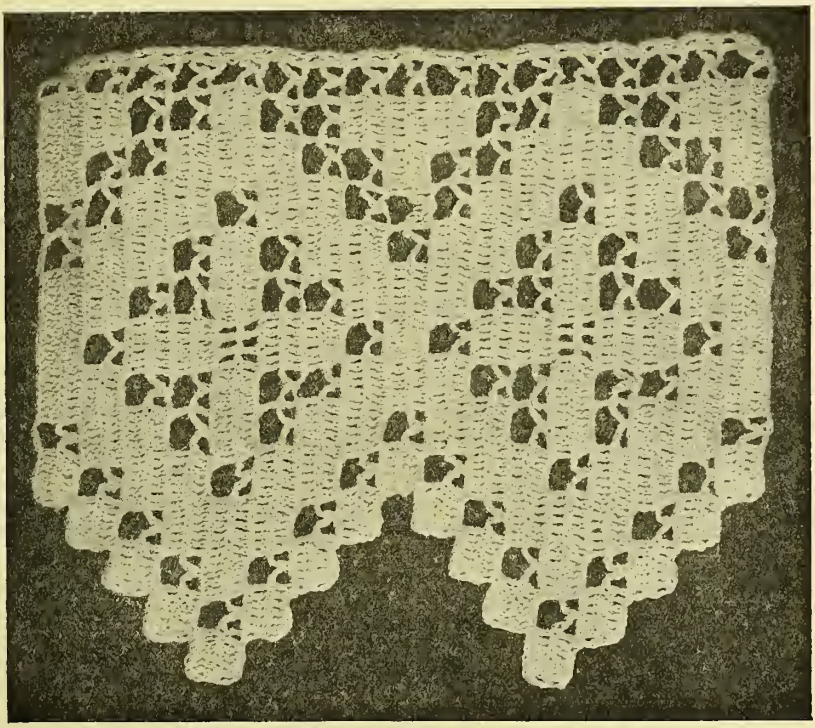


Fig. 427.—Crochet Lace.

1 t., 5 ch., 1 t., 5 ch., 13 t., 5 ch., 1 t., 5 ch., 7 t., 5 ch., 1 t., 5 ch., 13 t., 5 ch., 7 t. *9th row,* 9 ch., miss 4, 5 t. on next 5 ch., 1 t., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 13 t., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 13 t., 1 ch., miss 1, 1 t., 1 ch., miss 1, 1 t., 1 ch., miss 1, 13 t., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 13 t., 3 ch., miss 2, 1 d. c., 3 ch., miss 2, 2 t. *10th row,* 3 ch., 1 t., 5 ch., 13 t., 5 ch. 13 t., 1 ch., 1 t., 1 ch., 1 t., 1 ch. 13 t., 5 ch., 13 t., 5 ch., 7 t. *11th row,* 6 single along the 6 t., 3 ch., for 1 t., 5 t. on 5 ch., 1 t. on next t., then like row 7 from *. *12th row,* like 8th row. *13th row,* 6 single, 3 ch. for 1 t., 6 t. on the next 6 stitches, then like row 5 from the first *. *14th row,* like 6th row. *15th row,* 6 single, 3 ch. for 1 t., 6 t., then like row 3 from *. *16th row,* like 4th row. *17th row,* 6 single, 3 ch. for 1 t., 6 t., then like row 1 from *. Repeat from the second row.

In working a straight strip of this lace complete it after thus repeating the second row.

Summer Quilt in Crochet.—This is a pattern in circles, to be joined by the picots worked in the last round. As the crochet is open, the quilt should be lined with Turkey twill or coloured sateen. Very coarse cotton, white or unbleached, should be used, and a suitable steel hook.

Make a ring of 12 ch. *1st round,* 30 t. into the ring. *2nd round,* 3 ch. (for 1 t.), work 5 t. into the next 5 stitches leaving the last loop of every t. on the hook and drawing each out at least half an inch; then bring the cotton through all the six loops at once; * 12 chain, 6 drawn-out t. for one tuft on the next six stitches, draw through the seven loops at once and repeat from *. At the end work 12 ch. and unite this round (and do the same in the following rounds) with 1 single into the first stitch. *3rd round,* 12 d. c., on each set of 12 ch., 1 d. c. on each tuft. *4th round,* 1 t. 3 ch. 1 t. in the same d. c., 5 ch., miss 4, and repeat. *5th round,* 3 t. 3 ch. 3 t. in the 3 ch. of last round, 1 ch., 1 t. in the 5 ch., 1 ch. and repeat. *6th round,* 3 t. 3 ch. 3 t. in the centre of the group of the last round, 5 ch. and repeat. *7th round,* 3 t. on the 3 t. of group, 2 t. 3 ch. 2 t. in centre of the group, 3 t. on the next 3 t., 2 ch. 1 t. in the 5 ch., 2 ch. and repeat. *8th round,* 1 t. on the first t. of a group, 1 ch. miss 1, 1 t., 1 ch., miss 1, 1 t. on last t., 1 ch., 1 t. in space of 3 ch. 1 ch. 1 t. on t. 1 ch., miss 1, 1 t. on next, 1 ch., 1 t. on last t., 1 ch., 1 t. in space of 2 ch., 1 ch., 1 t. on t., 1 ch. 1 t. in the 2 ch. 1 ch. and repeat. *9th round,* 1 t. in the next space, 5 ch. 1 single into first of 5 ch. to form a picot, 1 t. in the same space, repeat from the beginning of the round.

Point Neige.—This stitch is both pretty and useful, and can be adapted to work of any shape. It is suitable for shawls, clothing, and rugs of various textures.

Begin with a chain the length required, allowing two stitches for each fan and three extra chain. *1st row,* put the hook into the chain nearest to the last-made stitch, draw the wool through, * put the hook into the next foundation chain, draw the wool through; repeat from * twice, working always quite loosely. There should now be five loops on the hook; draw the hook through all. * * 2 ch., draw the wool through the first of these 2 ch., through the little hole at the top of the last shell, and through the next two of the foundation chain. There should once more be five loops on the hook, draw the wool through all and repeat from * *. Finish the last fan with 1 instead of 2 ch. *2nd row,* 2 ch. to turn; * 1 d. c. in tip of the point of the shell, 1 d. c. between 2 shells; repeat from *, but put 2 d. c. in the last stitch of the last row. *3rd row,* 2 ch., put the hook into the first of these ch., draw the wool through, * put the hook into the nearest d. c., draw the wool through; repeat from * twice, draw the wool through all five loops at once. * * 2 ch., draw the wool through the first of these ch., through the little hole at the top of the last shell, through the next two of the d. c., through all five loops, and repeat from * *. Finish the last fan with 1 instead of 2 ch. Repeat rows two and three.

Care must be taken to get the same number of shells into every row when a straight piece of work is being executed.

Crochet Purse.—To make this purse, use two skeins of fine netting twist and a steel crochet needle No. 2½.

Make a ring of 6 chain. *1st round*, 3 t., 3 ch., five times alternately into the ring. *2nd round*, one group (of 3 t., 3 ch., 3 t.) into each loop of 3 ch. with 3 ch. after each group. *3rd round*, * one group into centre loop of the group of the previous round, 1 ch., 2 t. into next loop of 3 ch., 1 ch.; repeat from *. *4th round*, * one group in centre loop of the group of the previous round, 1 ch., 2 t. between the 2 t. of the previous round, 1 ch.; repeat from *. Work each round like 4th round until the purse is four inches long. For the heading put 1 long t. (thread twice round hook) followed by 1 ch. twelve times into centre of each group of the previous round, and 1 d. c. followed by 1 ch. between each pair of t. Slip a ring over the top of the purse to fasten it, securing it in place with a short length of chain.

Crochet Lace.—This is a pretty and uncommon crochet lace, suited for trimming garments, or, in cotton or twine, for ornamenting house linen.

Make a chain of 23 stitches. *1st row*, miss 3, 6 t. in the next, 2 ch. miss 2, 1 group (2 t., 3 ch., 2 t.) in the next, 7 ch. miss 7, 1 single into eighth chain, turn, work 3 ch. (for 1 t.) 7 t. on the 7 ch., * turn, 3 ch. (for 1 t.) 7 t.; repeat twice from *, 2 ch. miss 7 of the foundation chain, 1 group into the eighth. *2nd row*, 5 ch. to turn, 1 group in centre of the group of the last row, 15 ch., 1 group in centre of the group of the last row, 2 ch. 1 t. between the first two of the group of t. at end, 1 ch. 1 t. alternately five times. *3rd row*, * 5 ch. 1 d. c. in the next space, repeat from * four times, 2 ch., 1 group in the first group, 15 ch. 1 group in the next group. *4th row*, 5 ch., 1 group, 15 ch. 1 group, 3 ch. 1 d. c. in next space, 5 ch. 1 d. c. four times alternately. *5th row*, * 5 ch. 1 d. c. 5 ch. 1 d. c. in next space, repeat from * three times, 2 ch. 7 t. in loop of 3 ch. 2 ch. 1 group 7 ch. reach down and work 1 d. c. in the tip of the square of d. c. made in the first row, thus enclosing the three sets of 15 ch., turn, 3 ch. for 1 t., 7 t. on the 7 ch., * turn, 3 ch. for 1 t., 7 t. on the 7 t.; repeat from * twice, 2 ch., 1 group. Repeat from the second row.

Along the straight edge of the work crochet 1 t. 2 ch. 1 t. into each loop of 5 ch. and 4 ch. between each of these groups.

Tam o' Shanter Cap.—For this ¼ lb. (or more if for a large size) of double Berlin wool will be needed and a bone crochet-hook No. 9.

Make a ring of 4 chain. Work 12 d. c. into the ring. Continue in rounds of d. c., always putting the hook through both loops of the stitches and increasing where necessary, until a flat circle from 10 to 12 inches across is done. Work six rounds of plain d. c.; then decrease in equal proportion until the circle is the right size for the head. For the band work 2 or 3 inches of plain d. c. For the tuft wind some of the wool round and round a card; tie the strands firmly with twine, cut, clip, and comb the wool into a good ball shape; then sew it to the centre of the cap.

Crochet Hood.—The following directions are for a full-sized hood worked with shawl or single Berlin wool and hook No. 7 (fig. 428). For

use in travelling, select a dark or fawn colouring; for an invalid, or for evening wear, any delicate tint.

The hood is in a simple pattern, and by using finer materials or decreasing the number of the rounds can be made small enough to fit a child.

Make a ring of 5 chain. *1st round,* 16 t. *2nd round,* 1 chain followed by 1 t. between every two t. of the last round. *3rd round,* * 1 t. 1 ch. in the first space, 1 t. 1 ch. 1 t. in the next space, 1 ch. and repeat from *.

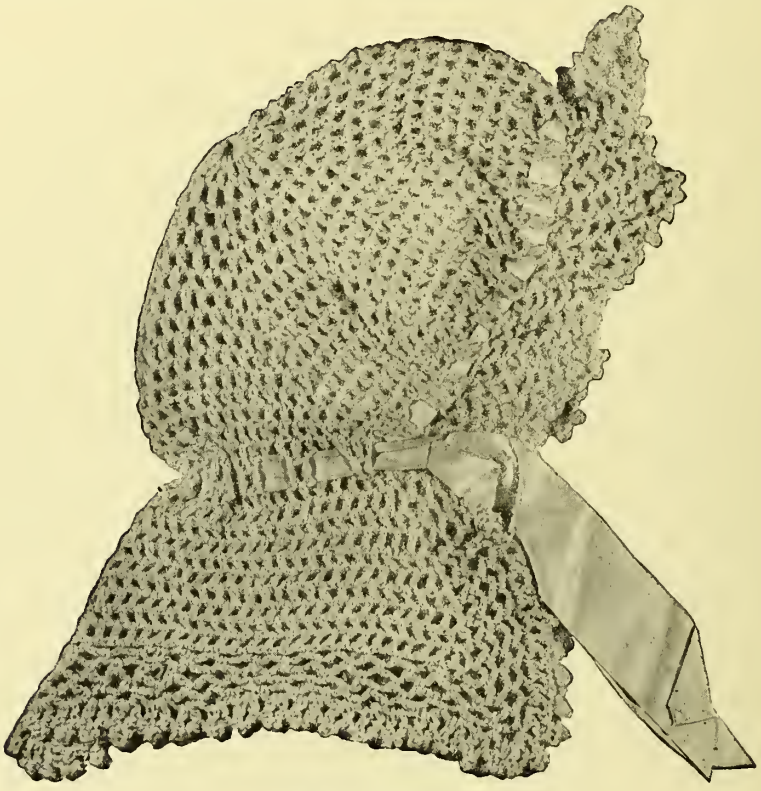


Fig. 428.—Crotchet Hood.

4th round, * 1 t. 1 ch. twice alternately in the next two spaces 1 t. 1 ch. 1 t. in the space over the increasing of the last round, 1 ch.; repeat from *. *5th round,* 1 t. 1 ch. three times alternately in the next three spaces, 1 t., 1 ch., 1 t. over the increasing of the last round, 1 ch.; repeat from *. Continue to work thus, increasing eight times in every round until there are 14 t. between the increasings.

For the fall * increase in the corner as usual, 1 t. followed by 1 ch. in the next spaces, increase in the corner 1 t. followed by 1 ch. in the following spaces, increase in the corner, turn and repeat from *. Work thus backwards and forwards on two of the eight sides of the centre until ten rows are done and there are 24 t. between the increasings.

For the border * work in a corner stitch 1 d. c. 7 ch. 1 d. c., then eight

times alternately 5 ch. 1 d. c. in the next loop but one, and repeat from *. Down the fall work 5 ch. followed by a d. c. into each row and in the corners 1 d. c. 7 ch. 1 d. c. as before. Crotchet four more rounds of 5 ch. 1 d. c. and 7 ch. in the corners; then for the lace work picots all round thus:—1 t. 5 ch., 1 single into the first of the 5 ch., 1 t. in each loop of 5 ch., and in the corners 1 t. 1 picot (5 ch. 1 single into the first), 1 t., 1 picot, 1 t., 1 picot, 1 t. Run a ribbon round six sides of the work in the last round before the border, draw it to the right size to fit the head, and secure it. Thread some of the same ribbon along the two sides forming the back of the hood above the fall, leave long ends to be drawn up to the size required and tie when the hood is in wear.

HOME ART WORK.

METAL EMBOSSING.

The metals embossed by amateurs are brass, copper, and more rarely silver. They are purchased in thin plates. Brass is the firmest to work upon. Copper is softer, and more satisfactory in colouring. The process of embossing is practically the same whatever metal is used.

Embossing Tools.—The work is wholly done by means of punches struck with the hammer. All the tools are blunt, as the metal must on no account be pierced. The majority are convex, but a few are concave. Some

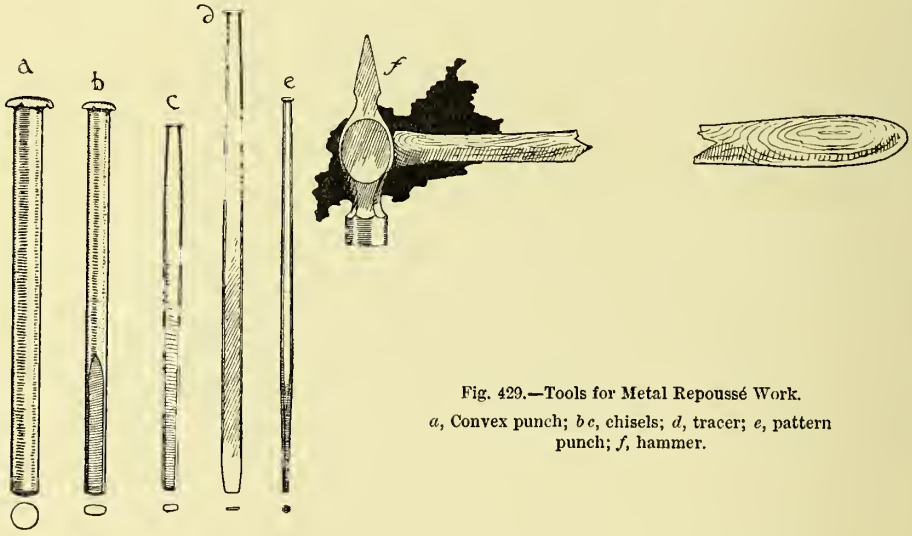


Fig. 429.—Tools for Metal Repoussé Work.

a, Convex punch; *b c*, chisels; *d*, tracer; *e*, pattern punch; *f*, hammer.

resemble blunt screw-drivers or chisels; others impress a small fanciful pattern on the metal. To make such salvers as those shown in fig. 430, the only tools required are a large convex punch, two chisels, a tracer, a pattern punch, and a hammer. (See fig. 429.)

The metal, if very thin and soft, can be worked on a half-inch sheet of lead laid on a thick board, to which both metals are screwed down. If a firmer material is used, higher relief can be obtained by means of a bed of either wax composition or pitch. To prepare the latter, take soft pitch 7 parts, resin 4 parts, tallow 1 part, and bath-brick 6 parts. Heat the bath-brick, and add gradually when the other materials are melted. Variation of the proportion of tallow makes the bed harder or softer.

Method of Embossing.—A pitch bed should be warmed over a lamp sufficiently to allow the brass or copper to be pressed into it by hammering down the corners. If very sparingly oiled, the metal often proves more manageable. The pattern is drawn upon it with ink, or else is sketched upon paper stuck over the surface of the brass. A stiletto or tracing-wheel will mark the outlines even through the paper, which should then be washed off.

The further tracing must be evenly and clearly done to ensure that flowering scrolls and curves have no awkward bends or angles in them. The tracer (*d*) must be lightly but firmly held in the left hand, and never

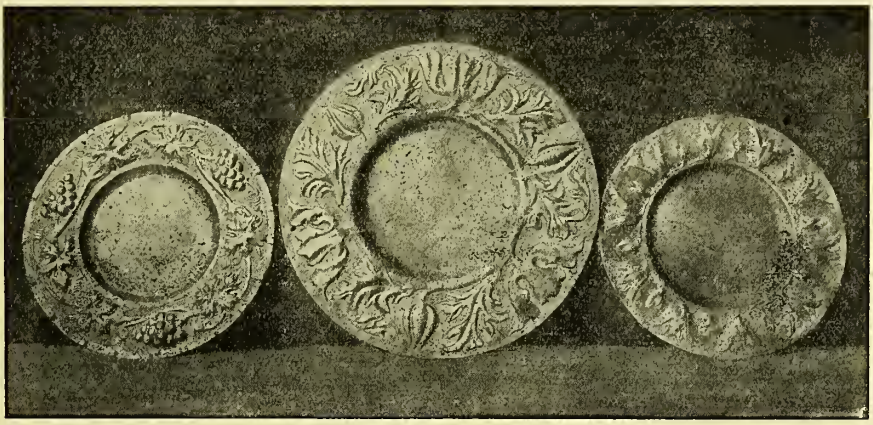


Fig. 430.—Copper Salvers in Repoussé Work.

allowed to slip while it is driven along the outlines with taps of the hammer. A curved tracer is sometimes used for details which the chisel blade will not reach. Any tooling on the background is put in next, some portions with a pattern punch, and others with a plain punch.

For the actual embossing the pitch bed is again warmed, and the metal raised and refixed wrong side upwards. Vigorous but judicious pressure exerted by hammering down punches, such as those at *a*, *b*, and *c*, is applied to all portions of the design which are to be in relief; but as some details naturally need less force than others, it is wise to do all lightly at first, and repeat the work in the portions which are to be most prominent. It is not easy to judge the effect of the embossing from the back of the metals. To obviate the necessity of raising it for inspection, a cast of the back in plaster of Paris will show where alteration is needed. When the work is finished the metal is lifted and laid on a board. The bent corners are then hammered down and the outlines retraced where necessary.

The subsequent lacquering or polishing should be entrusted to a professional, but the plate can be roughly cleaned by warming it and rubbing it with methylated spirit, or by boiling and scrubbing it, and afterwards dressing it with metal polish.

The mounting of repoussé work, unless simple, is beyond the powers

of most amateurs. Pen and pin trays can be bent into shape with strong pliers, and match-boxes present no great difficulty. The edges of trays and similar articles are much improved in appearance if goffered or fluted with pliers.

BENT IRONWORK.

The iron used in bent ironwork is obtainable by the pound in ribbon-like strips about 2 feet in length, and from $\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ inch in width. The $\frac{1}{4}$-inch width is most generally useful, but two or more sizes are often used together.

Tools.—The necessary tools (fig. 431) are:—(*a*) Shears for cutting the metal, and round-nosed (*b*) and square-nosed (*c*) pliers for working it. Some

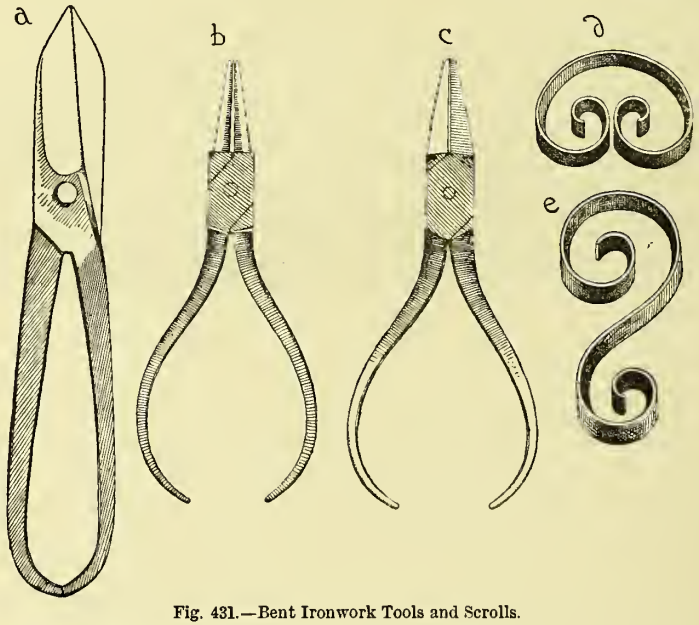


Fig. 431.—Bent Ironwork Tools and Scrolls.
a, Snips or shears; *b*, round-nosed pliers; *c*, square-nosed pliers; *d*, C scroll: *e*, S scroll.

copper wire is useful; also a foot-rule and a yard measure, a strong apron to cover the dress, leather gloves to protect the hands, and vaseline in case of accident. Soap rubbed over the hands prevents blistering during hard work. But with properly burnished tools an adroit craftsman soon learns to escape injuries.

Making Scrolls.—To make scrolls a novice should begin by cutting off with the shears a 6-inch length of iron and curling it till it is shaped like a C (*d*). Hold the straight strip in the square pliers, and, taking the round-nosed pliers in the right hand, bend it into the form of a U. Next, holding this near the base, curl one side of it in and round to the desired curve.

Then work the other side of the strip inwards until the two correspond. While working, wind the metal over the round pliers, and hold, smooth, and grasp it with the square pliers till the shape is perfect. Make the S scroll (*e*) similarly, only reversing the turn of the curves. Considerable practice will be needed, and for convenience thin, soft iron should be used at first.

Variations of these shapes are met with, but are not essential. Only C scrolls were employed in the basket shown in fig. 432, and the effect is

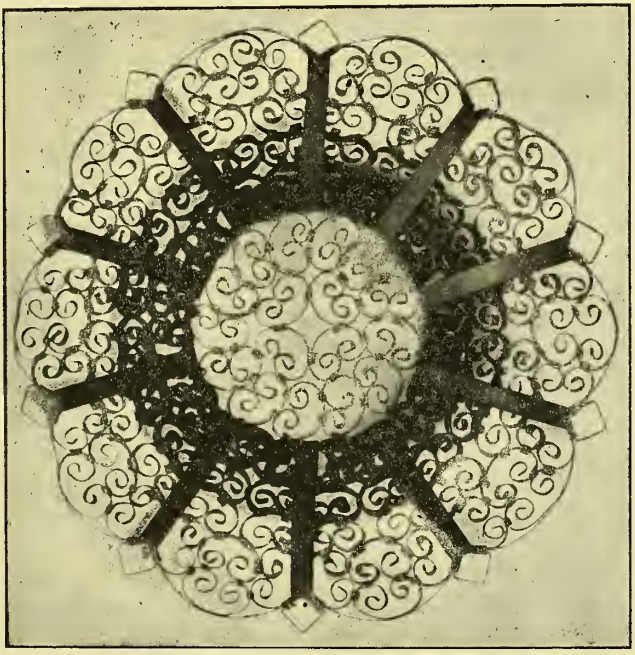


Fig. 432.—Bent Ironwork Basket.

perfectly satisfactory. The iron used is $\frac{1}{8}$-inch, and the bands are $\frac{1}{4}$ inch wide. The latter are split down for about an inch at the top, and when wound round the scrolls and edging of the basket they keep the work together. The entire basket measures 8 inches across.

Using the Scrolls.—All bent ironwork is composed of various scrolls made in different sizes, and arranged in patterns in an infinite variety of ways by putting C and S scrolls back to back, one under the other, one within another, and so on. Elaborate designs should be planned in full size on paper, and the strips of iron, as they are curled to the required shapes, can then be laid in the relative positions they are to occupy.

All the parts are united by clamping and wiring them, usually in pairs. Tin is softer for clamping than iron; a biscuit box cut up with the shears will provide a large supply of strips. Copper wire is sometimes used. The colouring is of no consequence, as the entire work is afterwards blackened. A strip of the material used must be cut three times as long as the width

of the bands which it is to enclose. One end of the strip should be bent with the pliers to form a hook passing round the scrolls, and the other end folded over and pressed down very tightly. Loose clamping is a sure sign of a bad worker. The ends of the clamps must be on the side of the scrolls on which they will be least conspicuous.

The articles to be constructed of bent iron include grilles, fire-guards, stands for lamps, lanterns, candles, and vases, window-blinds, bracket and mirror frames, and many other fanciful trifles, such as match-holders, suspension hooks, and caskets.

Finishing the Work.—The accessories required for mounting bent ironwork are obtainable from dealers in the tools. As they are of wrought iron their preparation is beyond the powers of the ordinary amateur.

As scrolls, however arranged, form too irregular a margin for some purposes, the work is frequently edged with a plain band of metal clamped down at intervals to the swells of the scrolls. A more elaborate edging is a strip goffered by curling it about the round-nosed pliers and attached by clamps to the depressions of the waves. Brass and copper scrolls and bands are sometimes introduced into ironwork, as also are portions of embossed metal, such as brass, copper, or iron flowers, rosettes, and leaves. But iron alone is sufficient for the amateur, and ribbon-work made of it is more pleasant to handle if, when finished, it is painted over with dull black.

LEATHER EMBOSSING.

Cow-hide and calf-skin are the two materials prepared for leather embossing. The former, being the stouter, is preferable for large and more important work, but requires rather more force in its manipulation. The leather articles which an amateur can emboss are very numerous and varied, ranging from a mat to a wall-hanging, and including furniture coverings, book and portfolio covers of all sorts and sizes, caskets, photograph-frames, and panels.

Tools.—For simple work the only tools required are the tracer (fig. 433, *a*), bent awl (*b*), modelling tool (*c*), hammer (*d*), and one or more punches (*e*).

The leather must be as homogeneous in texture as possible, and rather a larger piece than seems necessary should be used, as it is held down at the edges, which are afterwards cut away.

Method of Embossing.—The leather should be moistened with a sponge on the under-surface, and then fixed, right side up, to a board by means of drawing-pins. Calf-skin need not be moistened unless it is unusually tough.

An expert may pencil or indent a pattern directly upon the leather; ordinary workers should draw the design on paper and pin it into position. The outlines on the paper are then followed with the tracer with force enough

to mark, but not to cut, the surface of the leather beneath. When the paper is removed, the tooling can be commenced. Cow-hide usually needs a preliminary sponging. If this causes the leather to stretch, it must be raised and re-arranged. All the outlines of the pattern are next incised with the tracer (*a*), held like a pencil and pushed along the course to be followed. Afterwards such details as cannot be reached by this tool or by a tracing-

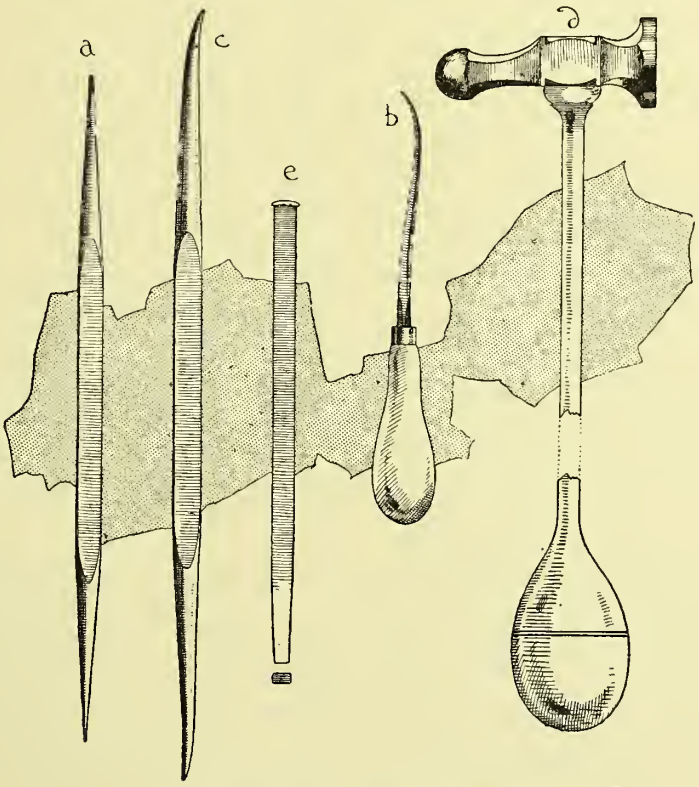


Fig. 433.—Tools for Leather Embossing.
a, Tracer; *b*, bent awl; *c*, modelling tool; *d*, hammer; *e*, punch.

wheel are cut with the awl. Careful sponging may be resorted to whenever the leather becomes unmanageably dry and tough. Faults not too deeply marked can be removed, after damping, by firmly smoothing them out with a knife-blade or some similar flat tool. The cutting should penetrate to half the thickness of the leather and be quite straight downwards.

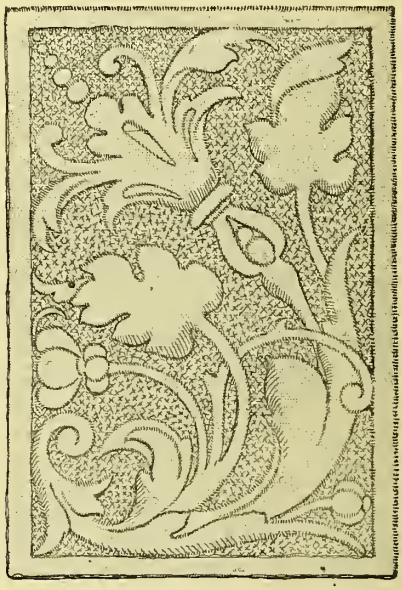
When all the outlines are evenly incised the modelling tool is used to open out the cuts, much or little as required, and to press back and roll down the edges. This is tedious work, but much depends upon its proper execution. Either end of the tools (*a* and *c*) is used according to the requirements of the design. Punching, the last process, is very easy, but must not be overdone either on the background or on details of the pattern, where it may be introduced for the sake of variety. The punch (*e*) held upright and struck

smartly with the hammer, leaves an impression of the design on its base. There is a great variety of punches, each marking a star, trefoil, scroll, circle, or other device. The work, when finished, may be varnished, or if preferred it may be painted or gilded.

Leather work, except in simple articles, should be mounted by a book-binder or dealer in the tools.

The card-case shown in fig. 434 is in low relief, very slightly embossed, and the background impressed with crosses from a punch. The straight

Back of Case: design traced.



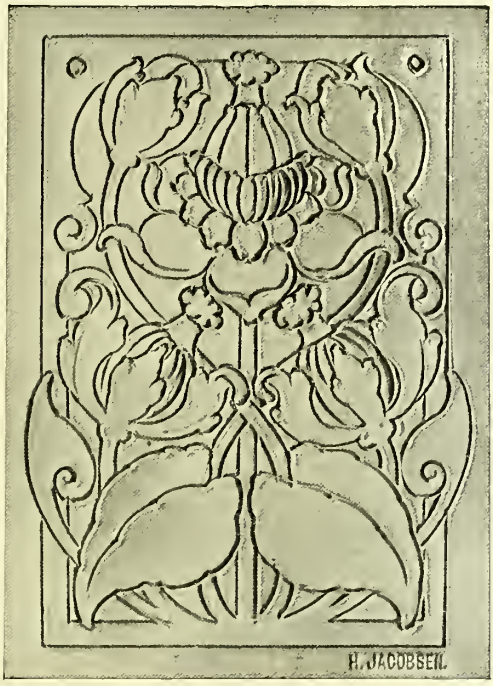
Front of Case: completed work.

Fig. 434.—Embossed Leather Card-case.

outlines here and in similar work are added last of all. More elaborate modes of leather embossing can be tried when this method is fully learnt. The design is incised as described, but sometimes the lines are under-cut afterwards—that is, the tool at the base of the upright incision is carried at right angles into the leather on both sides of this first cut. When the edges are rubbed back the work stands out with much boldness. Another method of embossing leather is by means of large tools or punches shaped to form the outlines required and impressed so firmly as to throw the remaining surface into higher relief.

Designs in still higher relief are executed by similar and yet more vigorous pressure from the underside of the leather, the depressions made being kept in position with a filling of prepared plaster of Paris and glue, or with modelling wax. Silver paper spread over all the back before the paste is quite firm keeps the whole neatly in place. High embossing is not done on a board but on a softer bed, folded baize answering the purpose well.

1, Design Traced.



2, Design Incised

3, Background Pressed Down.

4, Final Stages: Modelling, Punching, and Staining.

VARIOUS STAGES OF A LEATHER-WORK DESIGN

CANE BASKET-WORK.

The canes used in basket-making are round, split, or flat; the thinnest are equal in thickness to a No. 17 knitting-needle, the stoutest to an ordinary pencil. The numbers vary with different dealers. A beginner should use moderately fine materials for the weaving, and coarser canes for the spokes. Canes are sold by the pound, costing from 1*s.* 4*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* They are sent out in long skeins, out of which the strands may be drawn singly as required. Each length, before working, should be loosely wound into a ring and laid in cold or tepid water for a few or for many minutes according to its thickness. Green rush and fine cane-coloured raffia plait and coloured canes are often introduced into basket-work.

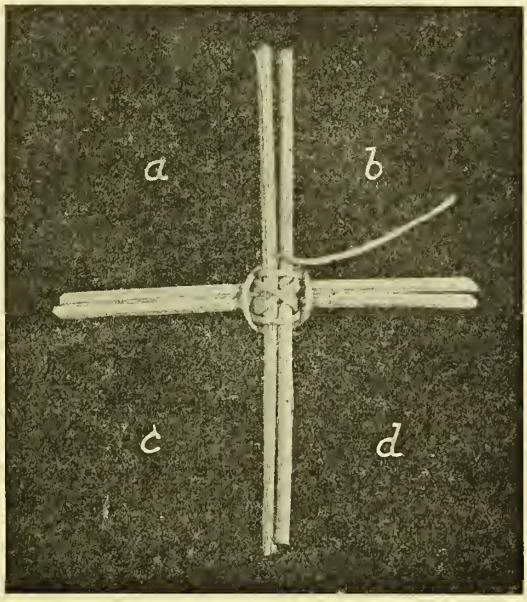


Fig. 435.—Cane Basket-work: Starting a Round Mat.

Tools.—In addition to the soaked canes, workers need a strong pair of scissors, a knife, and a piercer or stiletto, to separate the weaving temporarily when fresh spokes are to be inserted in close work.

Method of Working.—The easiest piece of weaving is a round mat or basket. For the spokes, cut an even number of pieces—six, eight, or ten—of the coarser canes, measuring in the case of a mat about twice the diameter, and in the case of a basket the diameter, of the base, added to twice the height of a side, together with from 6 to 12 inches extra for a heading. One additional spoke half the length of the others must be provided.

Cross half the long spokes at right angles over the other half in their exact centres, the upright ones uppermost, and bind together with weaving-cane. For the centres (shown in figs. 435 and 436) hold the spokes firmly in the left hand, and with the right push the end of the weaving-cane in behind the spokes at *b*; bring the weaver diagonally across the front to *c*, behind to *a*, across in front to *d*, behind across to *a*, in front to *b*, behind to *d*, in front to *c*, across behind to *b*, down in front to *d*, behind to *c*, and in front to *a*. This makes a cross bind in a square frame on both sides of the work. The spokes must set flat and not overlap.

Work once round under and over two spokes alternately; take the extra

spoke, and thrust one end into the centre of the weaving at *a*, and proceed to work over and under one strand alternately. Only four spokes are shown in fig. 435 for the sake of clearness, but more are usually necessary. Fig. 436 shows the work in its more advanced stage.

Another and easier beginning is to start the weaver at *a*, and carry it in front to *b*, behind to *d*, before to *c*, and behind to *a*. Repeat this once;

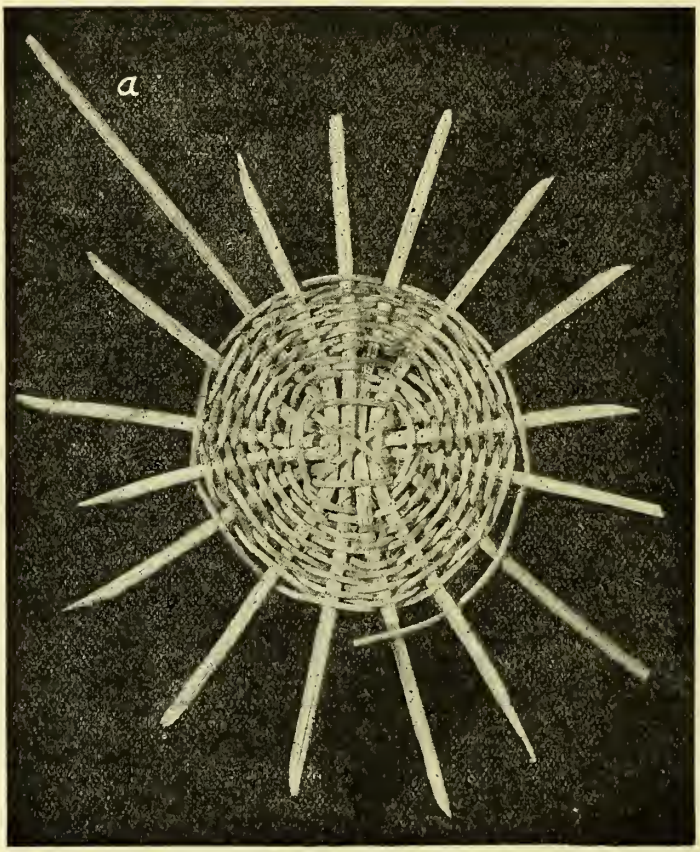


Fig. 436.—Cane Basket-work: Round Mat, later stage.

work once round under and over two, insert the extra spoke, and weave on alternately under and over one spoke only, passing behind in each round the cane passed over in the next, until the circle is of the required size.

All weaving is done from left to right, and in working the spokes should be gradually drawn apart until they are at even distances, as in fig. 436, where *a* represents the extra spoke.

For an oval basket or mat commence with six, eight, or ten canes for the width, and four or six others considerably longer for the length. Lay the latter parallel, put two of the shorter canes over at right angles to the left of the centre, and fasten with the cross-bind. Lash the weaver three or four times over the long canes, working from left to right, place and

bind in two or more short spokes, and continue till all are thus secured. In the subsequent weaving the spokes should be so separated and fanned out at the ends as finally to be equidistant.

When the base of a basket is formed it should be re-soaked, and the spokes bent up to the shape required for the sides. These may be worked

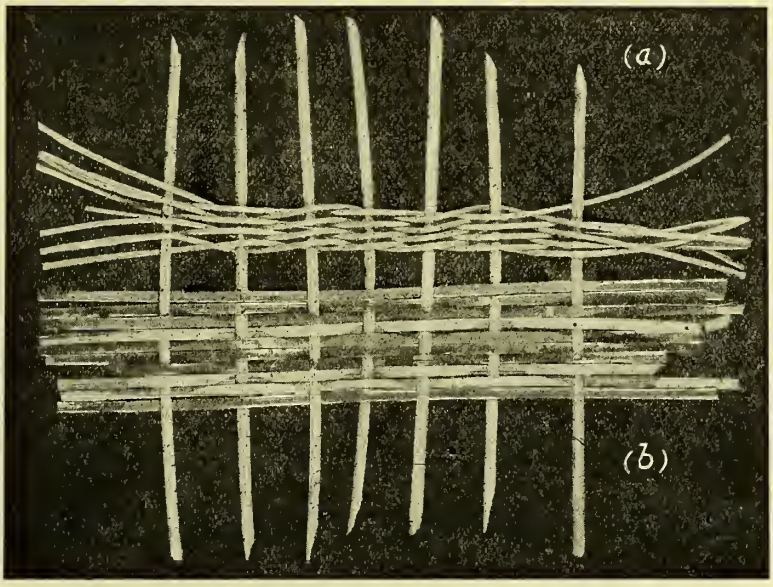


Fig. 437.—*a*, Weaving on even spokes. *b*, Weaving in pairs with flat cane.

in the plain over and under way with a single strand, or with pairs of flat canes used as in fig. 437.

If the extra spoke mentioned above is omitted and an even number of uprights is used, weaving can be done with two canes worked together, one always a spoke in advance of the other.

Another way, illustrated in fig. 437 *a*, is to cross the two weavers, which start from two consecutive spokes, between each pair of uprights.

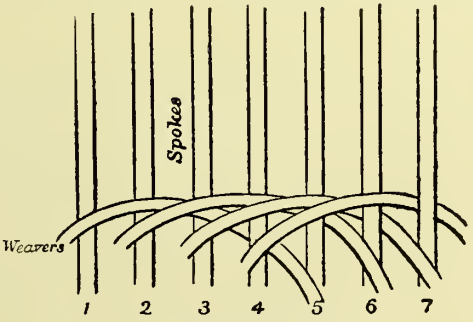


Fig. 438.—Cane Weaving: Fourfold Twist.

Twists are used at the lower edge of baskets and at all points where the spoke canes are sharply bent up and need strengthening, or where there are ends to be concealed. For a threefold twist start weavers from three consecutive spokes, and bring each in succession before two and behind the third spoke from it, on the way laying it over the other two weavers.

In fourfold twist (fig. 438) four weavers are placed behind four

consecutive spokes, and each in turn is passed over three spokes, and then brought to the back of the fourth from which it started.

When the basket or mat is finished the spokes should project several inches beyond the weaving. They must then all be cut to the same height, pointed at the end, and used to form a border. The easiest way of doing this is to take each spoke in turn, bend it over, and push it, making a passage for it with the piercer, down beside the first, second, or third spoke

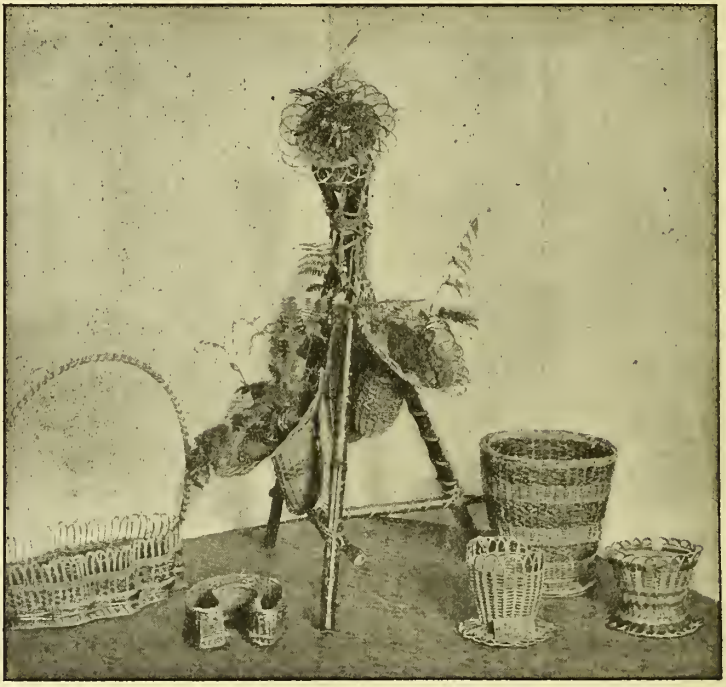


Fig. 439.—Group of Cane Baskets.

beyond it. The ends may be driven quite down or left slack to form a hooped or open edge. Many varieties can be made by interlacing the ends; new spokes are also often introduced and intertwined.

Handles for baskets are made by twisting evenly over a spoke-cane two others, or by plaiting three together. The ends must be thrust down beside the spokes on each side of the basket nearly to its base. When the weaving is completed and thoroughly dry, any ends should be cut away. Some workers singe, varnish, or enamel basket-work, but this is not necessary if fine canes are used.

A group of cane baskets is shown in fig. 439. The pot covers to the extreme right are made in a round wooden foundation pierced with holes to support the uprights until the top of the basket is done. The base is then drawn off, and the extending spokes are bent sharply out and finished with a little weaving and then an open edge. In one example coloured

cane is used. The waste-paper basket is made with coarser canes and rush, and finished with a close border. There is a permanent wooden base, and beyond it a small stand of weaving and then a close edge. The horse-shoe and a large-fluted basket are also on wooden bottoms. The latter has a high, open edge, and rush is introduced into the weaving as well as turned over the handle. The three baskets in the flower-stand are wholly of cane and raffia. The rims are bent out and wide. Here, as in other places where a circle becomes greatly enlarged, it may be advisable to introduce new spokes, one pushed down beside each of those already in position, and all gradually so overwoven that at last they set at equal distances apart.

POKER-WORK.

Tools.—For poker-work or pyrography the best machine to use has a platinum point or pencil which is held in the right hand and made red-hot over the flame of a spirit-lamp. The lamp is then extinguished, and the point maintained at a uniform heat by means of the vapour of benzoline, which is conveyed to it through tubing connected with a ball or bellows worked with the left hand. With this tool writing and drawing, ranging from a few simple strokes to an elaborate landscape or figure subject, can be executed upon any sufficiently smooth wood or leather surface.

Beginners must overcome by practice the tendency to make uneven strokes with dots at intervals, where the pencil is checked for an instant. The smoke, very pungent from some materials, can be diverted by a special "smoke director".

Drawings executed upon wood and other materials are in different tones of sepia-brown, from the faintest shadow caused by mere singeing to deep and heavily dark scores made by longer application from a hotter point. In addition to making lines and curves of equal pressure throughout, the regulation of the heat of the point by means of the bellows must be practised, and the art of making the strokes fine and heavy as required.

Method of Work.—A beginner should attempt a simple pattern, preferably geometric, accurately pencilled on the desired surface. It is better to mark lightly at first, as correct lines can afterwards be deepened and slight errors erased with sand-paper. Heavily burnt marks can only be removed by planing the whole surface.

Any style of design can be executed in pyrography, but the art seems peculiarly appropriate for heraldic patterns, such, for example, as that illustrated in fig. 440. This centre-piece is reproduced from one of a pair of panels measuring 1 foot by $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet. The background is covered with squares formed of parallel lines set at various angles, the pattern being wholly developed by means of lines and dots skilfully graded from the fine work in the minor details to the firm, bold strokes made with a coarser

point in the more important parts. In some examples of the work the background or some feature of the design is powdered with pattern touches, small hollow tubes fitting on to the point and variously formed at the tip so as, when heated, to leave impressions of trefoils, stars, rings, and so on. There are many shapes which can be employed, singly or in combination, arranged in formal but pleasing patterns for backgrounds, fillings,

Fig. 440.—Centre-piece of Poker-work Panel.

and borderings. On a few fanciful articles in burnt wood-work the introduction of colour is permissible, but, as a rule, is best avoided.

When the scorching is completed the wood can, if wished, be varnished, but it looks better if rubbed with French polish or with a preparation specially intended for the purpose.

Best Materials.—The woods chiefly used in pyrography are oak, elm, ash, holly, lime, cedar, sycamore, chestnut, teak, poplar, and what is known as American white wood. They vary in cost and in the depth of colouring they display when burnt. A novice should work first on a piece of board with a flat surface, proceeding to sloping and curved subjects as proficiency increases.

For poker-work there is an abundant choice of articles in the market, ranging from important pieces of furniture to knick-knacks such as book-covers, frames, shelves, cupboards, note-blocks, and match-boxes, costing but

a few pence each. It is a mistake to select from the stock of small dealers; a wholesale catalogue should be consulted, and the order given through an agent. The articles chosen should be of smooth wood free from knots.

Pyrography is applied with good results to leather, bone, ivory, textile fabrics, and also to glass, for which a special point is required. The treatment of these varies only in detail. A caution must be added against working on the many and tempting celluloid articles now obtainable, as the material is highly inflammable.

With care to avoid direct contact between the spirit and a flame no danger need be feared from the benzoline.

MARQUETRY PAINTING.

True marquetry is a kind of inlaying with various woods, the designs being marvellously delicate, considering the nature of the material. Marquetry painting is an imitation of the older art; when well done it can hardly be distinguished from the original.

Kauri pine, sycamore, and other so-called "white woods" form excellent backgrounds. This method of decoration can be applied not only to blotter-covers, caskets, and frames, but also to larger articles, such as furniture, spinning-chairs, chests, table-tops, screens, and trays. The designs vary according to the age and country of the marquetry imitated. Here novices often go astray, putting Dutch patterns on copies of Chippendale furniture, and so on. Such errors can be avoided only by study and experience, or by working from reliable designs. Whether, as is usually the case, musical instruments or arabesque ornamentations are portrayed, it must be remembered that in no case is a raised effect required, so that shading and veining are sparingly introduced.

Materials.—The wood-stains used for marquetry painting are water-colours, scentless and cleanly to handle. Satin-wood, rose-wood, mahogany, walnut, ebony, and olive are among the tints employed, as also are red, blue, and yellow. By combining two or more stains other shades can be obtained, but the entire quantity required should be prepared at once, as a second mixture is seldom exactly similar to the first. The other essentials are: Medium for thinning the stains when necessary, preparing-solution or size for dressing the wood, polish for the completed work, a tube of lamp-black or ivory-black paint, some sand-paper, camel-hair brushes, and paint palettes.

Method of Work.—The surface is first prepared by rubbing in the direction of the grain with sand-paper—No. 1½ for coarser woods such as bass, and No. 1 for the finer kinds like sycamore. All dust must afterwards be lightly blown off. A coat of preparing-solution is applied, and when this is dry a second rubbing with sand-paper is necessary, No. 1 for coarse and No. 0 for delicate woods.

Another coat of the sizing solution is applied, and after it is dry the pattern selected is either pencilled on the wood or else drawn on paper and transferred to it. Errors in designing and in the subsequent colouring can usually be removed by thoroughly rubbing with sand-paper and again applying the solution. The background is first painted with a fine, not overfull brush, worked with the grain of the wood close to the outlines of the design. Then a larger brush is swept over the remaining portions of the surface to be coloured. The work must be even and free from blots and streaks. Being an imitation of naturally-coloured wood, the effect must be

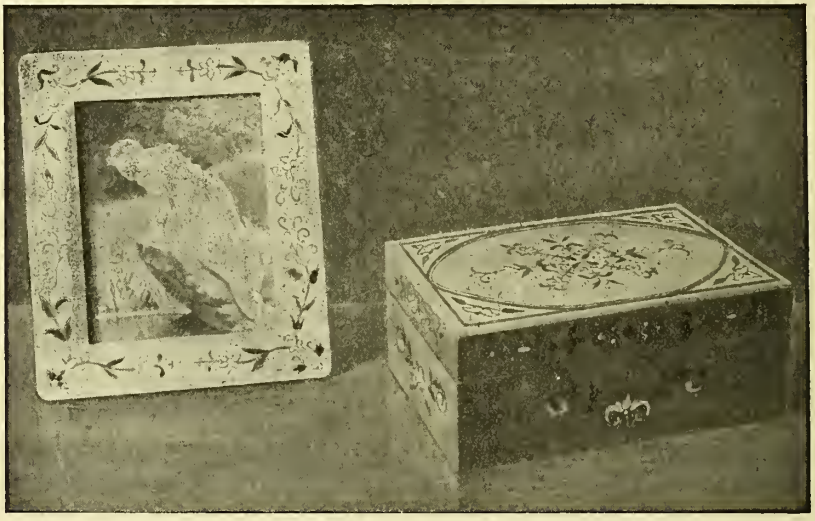


Fig. 441.—Box and Photograph Frame decorated with Marquetry.

as of one slab of the material. Several coats of staining may be needed, each being allowed to dry before another is laid over it. The background is usually darker than the design.

When the grounding is dry, the design is begun. A novice should choose as few colours as possible, and test them on a spare piece of the same wood, as the effect of each stain varies according to the surface to which it is applied. All portions of the design to be similarly coloured should be completed and allowed to dry before the parts next them are touched. When the last coat of colouring is dry, hair outlines of black are carried round all details of the pattern. These need a fine brush and a steady hand, as sharpness and evenness are essential to good work.

Finally, the painting, when it is again dry, is treated with French polish or with a special preparation sold for the purpose. Amateurs usually polish with more force than discretion. A light even touch should be cultivated, and the wad or rubber must never rest on the wood, even for an instant. When properly finished the whole surface should shine like a mirror.

*** The reproductions are from specimens kindly supplied by the following:—Chiswick Art Workers' Guild, Bath Road, Bedford Park (fig. 430); Miss Clifford, 44 Hill Road, Wimbledon (figs. 439 and 441); Messrs. Abbott Bros., Southall (fig. 440).

READING AND CORRESPONDENCE.

THE MANAGEMENT OF A SMALL LIBRARY.

It is impossible to lay down elaborate rules to guide individuals in the selection of the books which are to constitute their private libraries. The days when Bacon "took all knowledge to be his province" have long since passed away, and most persons are now perforce content "to know something of everything and everything of something", and must consequently be guided in their selection by their individual tastes and occupations.

There are, however, certain classes of books which are of use in every household. Mr. Morley, speaking at Arbroath on the subject of free libraries, complained that people "did not follow up the really interesting things which a newspaper suggested. He was amazed that people were content not to know where the places were that they read about, when a man that they read about was born, and where he was born, and what a word meant, when there was in the next room, or in the next street at all events, some dictionary or encyclopædia which would at once tell them all that they ought to know." As it is very inconvenient to be compelled to visit a free library, or other similar institution, whenever any such information is required, it is advisable to keep at hand a few books of reference. In order to obtain information concerning the places which at any time are of particular interest, a good atlas, perhaps also a good gazetteer, is essential. There are several books concerning the celebrities of the day, while the almanacs and other works of the same class furnish information of general interest. A good English dictionary is obviously necessary, and persons who have to read or write in foreign languages will need dictionaries of those languages.

Book-Cases.—For book-cases, deal, pine, or oak is to be preferred, but the wood should be non-resinous in any case. Unless the library consists of only a few books—when fixed shelves are sufficient—movable shelves, which can be adjusted so as to suit the sizes of the books, are the most satisfactory (fig. 442). Pegs are sometimes employed for the purpose, but they are liable to enlarge the holes and drop out. Mr. J. D. Brown of the Clerkenwell Public Library, in his *Handbook of Library Appliances*, states that "the depth of the shelves should be about 9 inches, their length 3 feet, and their thickness, as finished, not less than $\frac{3}{4}$ inch nor more than 1 inch". If the length of the shelves is great they are apt to bend in the middle under the weight placed upon them. The same writer also says that the

surfaces of the shelves in contact with the books should be neither painted nor varnished, but that there is no objection to polishing or staining. Book-cases should not be placed quite against the walls, and should not extend the whole height of the room, as the hot and vitiated air at the top is hurtful to the bindings. If there are many books to be housed in a small space, stacks which have shelves on both sides are very suitable.

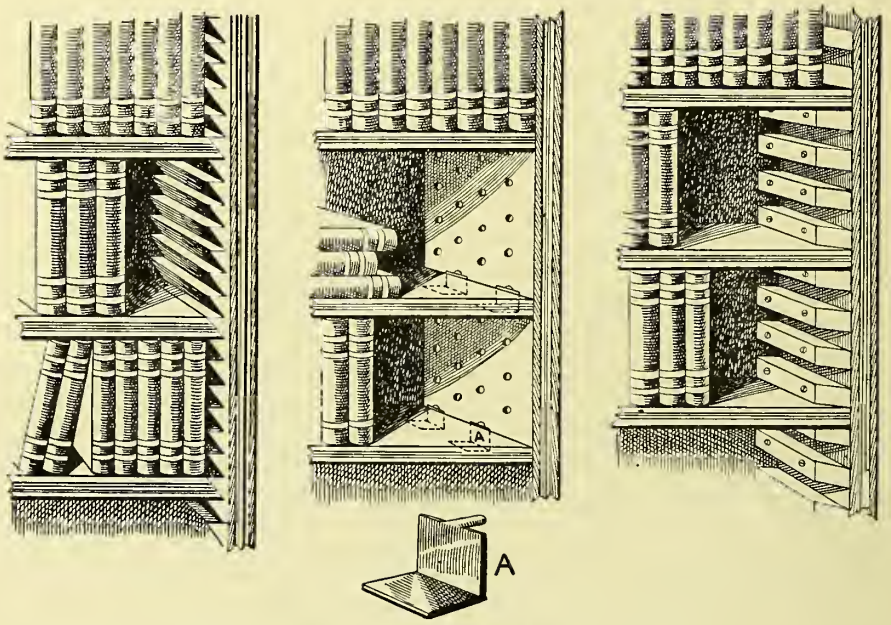


Fig. 442.—Methods of supporting Movable Shelves in Book-cases.

Of course, they are not placed against the walls but in the middle of the room.

Mr. Blades, in *The Enemies of Books*, says, "It is a mistake also to imagine that keeping the best-bound volumes in a glass-doored book-case is a preservative. The damp air will certainly penetrate, and as the absence of ventilation will assist the formation of mould, the books will be worse off than if they had been placed in open shelves. If security be desirable, by all means abolish the glass and place ornamental brass work in its stead. Like the writers of old cookery books, who stamped special receipts with the testimony of personal experience, I can say *probatum est.*"

Rotary book-cases are both ornamental and useful, especially for reference books.

Library Appliances.—Revolving and tilting chairs and book-rests, which hold a book at any height and angle, are luxuries for those who desire the maximum of ease and comfort. Book supports (fig. 443) are necessary for keeping the books upright on the shelves, thus preventing them from falling about and losing their shape. Of these there are several varieties. Current magazines lying on the table should be protected by reading covers; old

numbers should be preserved in boxes for binding. An ivory paper-knife should always be at hand to cut the pages of new books, because careless persons are very apt to use for that purpose the first object, however unsuitable, that comes to hand.

Maps and atlases should be placed in drawers. For keeping loose papers together, cardboard cases, which resemble books and can stand on the shelves (fig. 444), are both neat and useful. Book-trays (fig. 444) for holding a few books and files for newspapers may also be required.

Care of Books.—Damp must be carefully excluded from the library; "it is necessary to avoid having the windows open on a wet day, and above all in the evening", says the Rev. T. Rogers in his *Manual of Bibliography*.

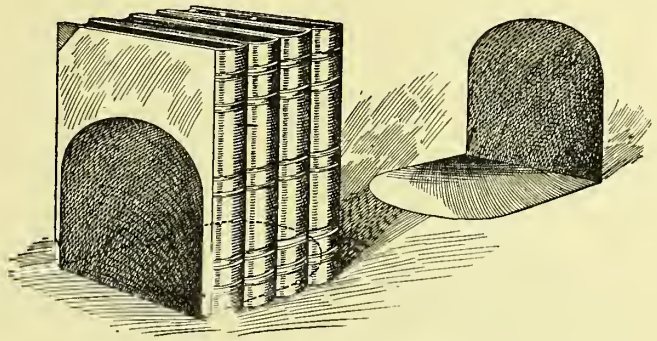


Fig. 443.—Murray's Book Supports.

But in fine weather the fresh air should be admitted freely, and at intervals the books should be dusted and the shelves cleaned. In every case, before a book is opened, the dust on the top should be removed. Mr. Blades recommends "a well-gilt top" as "a great preventative against damage by dust".

Every new book should be carefully examined page by page, in order to make sure that no plate or sheet is missing, and, if there is any deficiency, a complete copy should be claimed. If, however, it is perfect, evidence of ownership, either by book-plate, stamp, or writing, should be inserted at once. When it is cut, the paper-knife should go right into the fold, otherwise the half-cut leaves will probably be torn. It should never be left open, face downwards. Many persons turn down the leaf to mark the place; to check this objectionable practice, some public libraries issue a small card bookmark with each volume. Lenders of books would do well to follow their example.

Bindings of Books.—For the binding of *editions de luxe*, French Levant morocco is without a rival. For ordinary books which are much used, half-morocco with cloth sides is the best. Half-pigskin is also very good, and goatskin has its admirers. Imitation Levant morocco has been recommended as a good and cheap substitute for morocco. Russia and calf are generally to be avoided. If the binding is sewn on flexible tapes, the book will lie flat open on the table. For books which are not in much

use, buckram or cloth is sufficient. Where strength in binding is essential, "every sheet", according to Mr. J. Winter Jones, "ought to be stitched round each of the bands, and the covers ought to be fastened by joints".

A list should be kept of all the books, with date of accession, name of bookseller, and price; and when any one is absent for binding or other

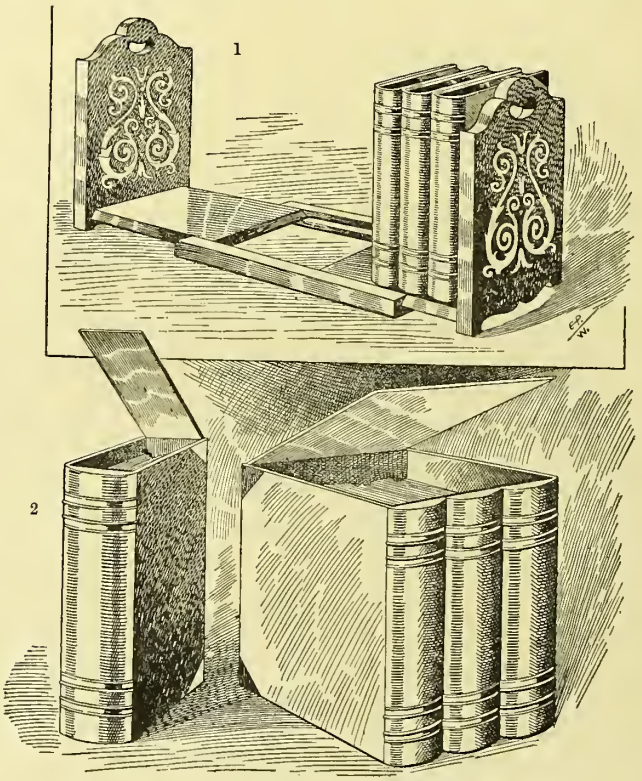
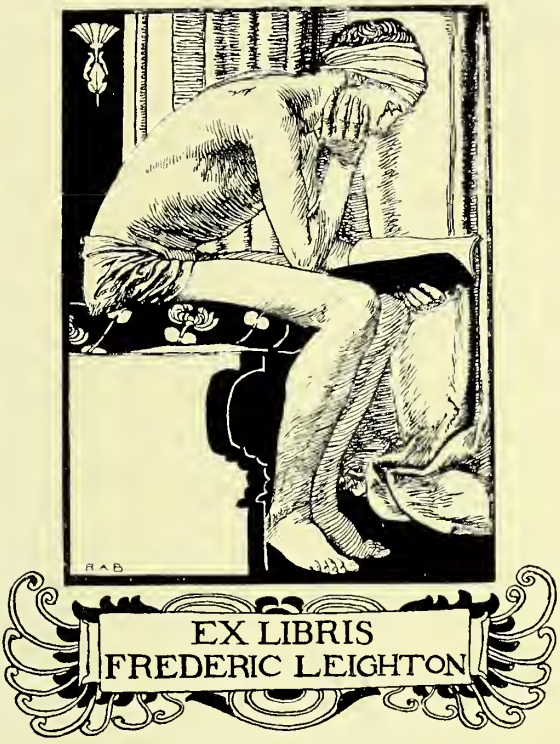


Fig. 444.—1, Book Tray. 2, "Dummy" Books for loose papers.

reasons the fact should be noted in the list or on a card placed in its stead on the shelf.

Purchase of Books.—When books are bought from retail dealers full discount should be demanded unless the price is net. Second-hand books in good condition may often be bought at large lending libraries which publish lists of spare copies. It is well to glance at the catalogues of second-hand dealers, but all orders by post should be on approval.

Book-Clubs.—Book-clubs, which are very popular in the country, are managed as follows:—Twelve families combine, each subscribing, say, a guinea, and selecting a guinea's worth of books. As the whole lot is ordered in one parcel, a considerable discount can usually be obtained. A list of the twelve families is made, each keeps its own books a month, and then passes them on to the next family on the list, receiving in exchange books from the family before it on the list, and so on. At the end of the



(Designed by R. Anning Bell)

(Designed by J. Walter West)

(Designed by Harold Nelson)

(Designed by Jos. W. Simpson)

SOME MODERN BOOK-PLATES

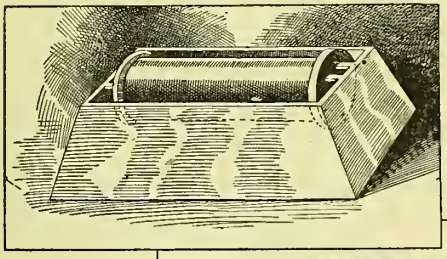
year each family has had the advantage of reading twelve guineas' worth of books, and having its own guinea's worth to keep.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The golden rule in correspondence is to answer letters promptly, and then sort and lock up, or destroy.

Letters should be arranged in alphabetical order under either the writer's name or the subject-matter of the correspondence. Thus if John Jones writes about building, his letters may be placed under the heading, "Jones (John)", or under the heading "Building". In such cases it is well to have a cross-reference from the name of the writer to the subject of the correspondence, and *vice versâ*. Thus, if the correspondence is sorted according to subject-matter, under the heading "Jones (John)" there should be a memorandum "For correspondence of Jones (J.) upon Building see under the latter heading"; if according to the writers' names, there should be, under "Building", a memorandum, "For correspondence concerning Building see under Jones (J.) and Brown (B.)". By this means the whole correspondence can be found at once when wanted.

Fig. 445.—Stamp and Envelope Damper.



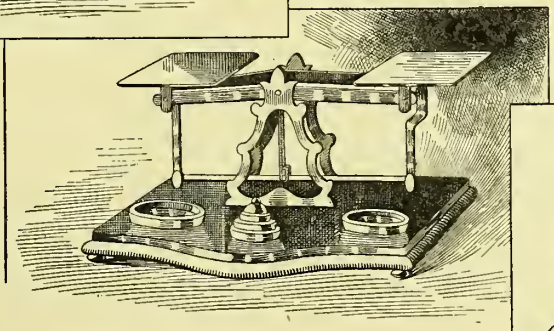


Fig. 446.—Letter Scales.

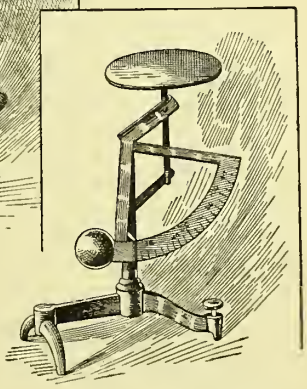


Fig. 447.—Letter Balance.

When writing a reply it is always well to have the original letter in front of one, otherwise some points are likely to be overlooked. If the matter is important, a rough draft should be made of the reply. This not only ensures accuracy, but also serves as a memorandum, for which purpose, however, a pressed copy is better. A concise statement, though it may take more time to compose than a lengthy one, is much more intelli-

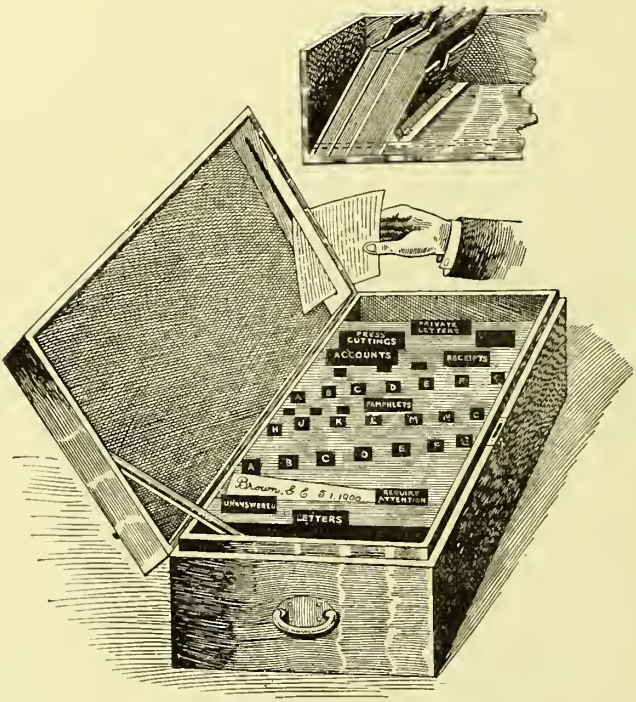


Fig. 448.—Letter-box File with self-fixing Sliding Support. (Ceres Automatic System: T. Bowater Vernon, Patentee.)

gible, and, what is important when one is dealing with a busy correspondent, makes much smaller demand upon the reader's patience.

There are several things which it is useful to have at hand when attending to correspondence. A note-book with the letters of the alphabet cut into it is useful for addresses of correspondents. A spring-balance weighing-machine (fig. 447), which costs a shilling or two, will often save a journey to the post-office to ascertain if a letter is over weight. Care should also be taken that there is always a supply of note-paper and envelopes, stamps, post-cards, telegraph forms, paper-fasteners, scribbling paper for rough drafts of letters and memoranda. Thin opaque envelopes can be obtained for foreign correspondence.

Among optional articles may be mentioned pigeon-hole cabinets, type-writers, manifold-writers, copying apparatus, box files with expanding indexes (fig. 448), calendar desk-pads, letter-clips, paper-cutters, measured rulers, pen trays.

Post-Office Regulations.—The *vade mecum* of everyone with a large or small correspondence should be the *Post-Office Handbook*, price 1*d.*, issued half-yearly and obtainable at all post-offices and of all postmen in the United Kingdom. It contains exhaustive information concerning such matters as rates of postage (inland and foreign), registration and compensation, poste-restante, express delivery services, money orders, savings-banks, annuities, telegrams, calendars of the dates of despatch of foreign and colonial mails not made up daily, of the dates of arrival of foreign and colonial mails not due daily, parcel post (foreign and colonial), tables of postage, regulations concerning letters for passengers on board mail packets.

The following items extracted from the *Post-Office Handbook* are worth remarking:—

"A letter (or newspaper) posted unpaid is chargeable on delivery with double postage; and a letter (or newspaper) posted insufficiently prepaid is chargeable with double the deficiency."

"A newspaper must be so folded as to admit of the title being seen."

"In order that a packet may go by parcel post, it must be presented at the counter of a post-office for transmission as a parcel. It must on no account be deposited in a letter-box. The words 'parcel post' should be written or printed on the left-hand side, immediately above the address. The sender's name and address should appear on the cover. . . . A certificate of the posting of a parcel can be obtained at any post-office."

"No charge is made for the re-direction of letters, post-cards, newspapers, and book packets, whether registered or not, and whether re-directed by an officer of the post-office or by an agent of the addressee after delivery, provided in the latter case that they are reposted not later than the day (Sundays and public holidays not being counted) after delivery, and that they do not appear to have been opened, or tampered with."

"Every article to be registered must be given to an agent of the post-office, and a receipt obtained for it; it must on no account be dropped into a letter-box."

Under the regulations concerning the express delivery of letters and parcels it should be observed that "Every packet must be handed in over the counter", and the words "Express Delivery" must be written above the address in the left-hand corner of the cover. Letters to be forwarded by express delivery after transmission by post must have the words "Express Delivery" written above the address on the left-hand side of the cover, which must also be marked "with a broad perpendicular line from top to bottom, both on front and back".

As a rule telegraph offices in England are open on Sundays from 8 a.m. to 10 a.m., and in Scotland and Ireland from 9 a.m. to 10 a.m.

It must be remembered that, as a general rule, the ordinary charge for a telegram only "covers the cost of delivery within three miles of the terminal office".

The following regulations concerning rural postmen may be useful to persons living in the country:—

"Every rural postman is required to sell postage stamps and registered letter envelopes."

"Rural postmen, whether on foot or mounted, are required, under certain regulations and restrictions, to collect parcels from the public for despatch (by parcel post) wherever they collect letters. The sender is held responsible that parcels so posted are within the prescribed limits of weight and size, and properly prepaid."

"Rural postmen will take postal packets for registration on their outward and inward walks, whenever it is practicable for them to do so."

"Letters for express delivery, &c., after transmission by post may be handed to a rural postman. Parcels and registered letters for this service must be handed in at a post-office, or to a rural postman."

Mode of Addressing Titled Persons. — Full information concerning the modes of addressing persons of hereditary or official rank may be found in Hazell's *Annual*, from which the following items are taken:—

Archbishop—commence *My Lord Archbishop*; refer to personally as *Your Grace*; and address letter to "His Grace the Archbishop of ——".

Baron—commence *My Lord*; refer to personally as *Your Lordship* or *My Lord*; and address letter to "The Rt. Hon. Lord ——".

Bishop—commence *My Lord*; refer to as *Your Lordship*; address to "The Right Rev. The Lord Bishop of ——".

Cardinal—commence *Your Eminence*; refer to as same; address to "*His Eminence* ——".

Duke—commence *My Lord Duke*; refer to as *Your Grace*; and address to "His Grace the Duke of ——".

Earl—commence *My Lord*; refer to as *Your Lordship*; and address to "The Rt. Hon. the Earl of ——".

Marquis—commence *My Lord Marquis*; and refer to as *My Lord* or *Your Lordship*; and address "The Most Hon. the Marquis of ——".

Prince—commence *Sir*; refer to as *Your Royal Highness*; and address, if a prince, "His Royal Highness Prince ——", or, if a duke also, "His Royal Highness the Duke of ——".

Queen—commence *Madam*; refer to personally as *Your Majesty*; and address "The Queen's Most Excellent Majesty".

Viscount—commence *My Lord*; refer to as *Your Lordship* or *My Lord*; address to "The Rt. Hon. Lord Viscount", or "The Lord Viscount ——".

THE SCRAP-BOOK.

In their articles on "Professorships of Books and Reading" in the Special Report on Public Libraries in the United States of America, published in 1876 by the U. S. Department of the Interior, Messrs. W. Mathews and F. B. Perkins recommend that among the duties of such professors should be that of giving instructions as to "how to keep and use commonplace books" and as regards "the practice of making scrap-books". The late Mr. G. A. Sala was credited with a memory capable of bearing the strain of encyclopædic knowledge, but he once modestly confessed that his

command of vast and varied information was due to his practice of keeping carefully-indexed commonplace books.

The practice is one of immense utility, saving time, trouble, and often money. The journalist who has to write off within an hour or two an article on such a subject as quaint epitaphs turns to his commonplace book, finds by means of the index what he wants, and so has no need of ransacking libraries and turning booksellers' shops topsy-turvy in order to obtain the required information. The careful housewife who notes down, in such a manner as will enable her to lay the finger upon it when wanted, any item of useful information which she comes across in her reading will be repaid a hundredfold for her labour. One lady, who spends her summer holiday each year in a different place, keeps a book specially devoted to what she calls "travel-addresses", scraps of information about hotels, boarding-houses, lodgings, interesting scenes and illustrations being collected from various sources and inserted under the names, arranged in alphabetical order, of the towns referred to. The book has proved very useful not only to herself but also to her friends. This is only one of the many ways in which a carefully-kept scrap-book can be utilized.

"Paste" for Scrap-books.—Of materials for pasting in cuttings gum arabic is always ready for use. Paste made of flour is apt to be lumpy, and is therefore inferior to starch; a clove or two should always be added to prevent its turning sour.

To make starch-paste, dissolve the starch in cold water, and then pour in boiling water until the required consistency is obtained, taking care that no lumps remain. Starch spreads best if used warm.

In pasting in a photograph, first carefully arrange it on the page of the album so that it is exactly in the middle, and pencil-mark the page at the corners of the photograph so as to indicate the position it is to occupy. Smear the entire surface of the back of the photograph with paste, as otherwise it will not be even, and place it in position, beginning at the left-hand side, and smoothing it out towards the right.

To remove a photograph pasted in an album, cover it with blotting-paper that has been soaked in warm water. When the paste is sufficiently softened draw the photograph off very slowly, taking care not to tear it.

An album with thick leaves should be chosen for photographs and thin papers. They should be stuck in as soon as the paste is applied, as they have a tendency to curl up. Sheets of blotting-paper should be left between the leaves of the album until they are quite dry, in order to absorb the moisture.

The paste should be applied with a thick or thin brush according as the paper is thick or thin.

In order to prevent the scrap-book from becoming too bulky as the insertions accumulate, cut out alternate leaves; in many scrap-books allowance is made for this.

Indexing.—It is said that Lord Campbell once intended "to bring a bill into parliament to deprive any author who published a book without an

index of the privileges of copyright, and, moreover, to subject him for his offence to a pecuniary penalty". A scrap-book, or commonplace book, no less than many printed books, is almost valueless without an index, which can be made as follows.

Get a supply of scribbling-paper, a strong pair of scissors, a cloth for fixing down slips, some gum or paste, blotting-paper, and some fine paper-files with detachable heads. Strong needles with their blunt ends inserted in corks can be used instead of files. Divide the pages of the scribbling-paper by a fold down the middle, so that the entries may be in two columns. They should be written one under the other on one side of the paper only, sufficient space for cutting up being allowed between them. It is advisable to enter a word several times over rather than to go back and endeavour to find the previous entry. The accompanying diagram will make the process clear.

Post-card, 1.	Asia, 8.
Earth, 1.	Europe, 8.
Sand, 2.	England, 8.
Orb, 2.	Home, 8.
Milk, 2.	Post-card, 10.
Can, 3.	Oxford, 10.
Post-card, 3.	Milton, 10.
Race, 3.	Pangbourne, 10.
Horse, 4.	Post-card, 12.
Sheep, 5.	Ape, 12.
Cow, 6.	Stanley, H. M., 13.
Home, 6.	Gray (Asa), 13.
Africa, 7.	Anne (Queen), 13.

The numbers, of course, refer to the page of the scrap-book on which the various items are mentioned. When the sheets have been cut up into slips as shown by the dotted lines, if several slips relate to the same subject, all the entries may be transferred to a single slip. Thus in the instance given the various references to the word "post-card" may be entered as follows:—

Post-card, 1, 3, 10, 12.

If the slips are very numerous, it is not advisable to sort them into strict alphabetical order at once. First sort them by the initial letter into heaps or into a sorting-box. Then, commencing with A, take them and sort again by the second letter, the first heap being Aa, the second Ab, and so on. Place all the slips in strict alphabetical order, face downwards on the files, from which, when the heads are removed, they can be taken off one by one and pasted in the scrap-book. If the index is not to be a final one, leave space between the entries for additions. Sheets of blotting-paper should be inserted between the leaves of the index-book until the paste is dry. In cases where only a few entries are likely to be made in a scrap-book, the pages may be lettered alphabetically. Thus, under the pages given to B, will be entered "Bread", "Butter", and so on. In this case, however, the entries under each letter cannot easily be kept in strict alphabetical order among themselves.

HOUSEHOLD REPAIRS.

THE FAMILY TOOL-CHEST.

The kind of box in which tools are kept is immaterial, but it must be so large that any tool can be taken out without damage to the others. For this reason a spare room or even a cupboard is far more convenient than any box. One should on no account buy "a box of tools", for it will certainly contain many that are seldom used, while others more necessary will be omitted, and its contents will almost certainly be of very poor quality. The best tools are to be obtained at shops which sell nothing else, and also at some of the large stores where there is a special tool department.

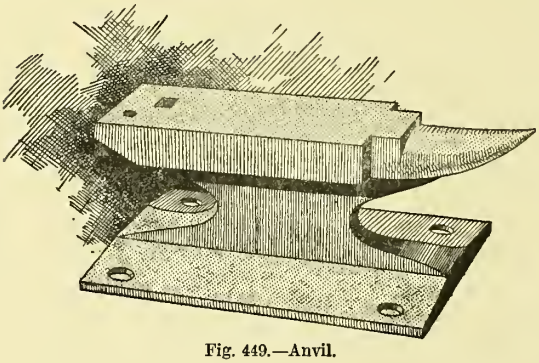


Fig. 449.—Anvil.

If it is inconvenient to buy at one time all that are mentioned in the following list, those of each kind first named should be bought to begin with.

Anvil.—Even when no smith's work is done a small anvil is often very useful. One of about 14 lbs. weight costs 6*d.* or 7*d.* the lb. A cutter for use on the anvil is invaluable for cutting thick wire or thin iron rod, and costs about 1*s.*

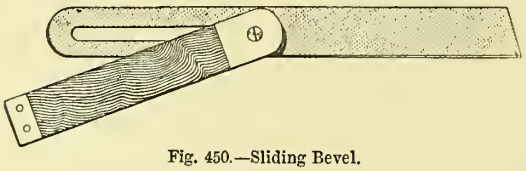


Fig. 450.—Sliding Bevel.

Bevel.—The bevel has a movable blade, which can, by means of a set-screw, be set at any desired angle. It costs much the same as the square, or rather less if the blade is of wood.

Bits.—For boring holes in wood not more than $\frac{1}{4}$ inch in diameter the common twist-bit is best, and a set of six, assorted in size, costs 1*s.* 3*d.*; single bits are about 3*d.* each. For larger holes in wood the "Jennings" bit is very good; it costs from 1*s.* 3*d.* for $\frac{1}{4}$ inch size to 1*s.* 7*d.* for $\frac{5}{8}$ inch size. Cheaper bits called "Shell" or "Nose-and-Spoon" bits cost only 4*d.*

or 6*d.* each, but as neither has a central point, a beginning must be made with some other tool; after which, however, they work quite well.

Brace.—The most useful brace has "chuck" jaws, which will hold bits of various sizes and shapes without special fitting; it has also a reversible ratchet motion, which much increases its utility; such a brace costs from 5*s.* to 9*s.*, according to make and finish.

A plain brace, for which each bit must be fitted, and which has no ratchet, but is otherwise quite serviceable, may be bought from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 6*s.* 6*d.*

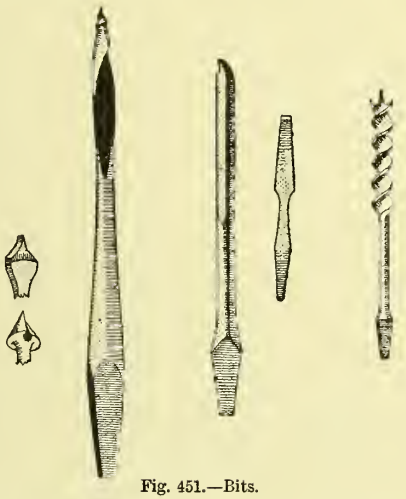


Fig. 451.—Bits.

Brad-awls.—Of these, three or four, ranging from very fine to coarse, are necessary. They cost from 1½*d.* to 3*d.* each with handles.

If an awl pulls out of the handle, drive a plug of wood into the hole, and make a new hole in the plug with another brad-awl, not with a gimlet; hold the awl in the vice, or between the claws of the claw-hammer, and

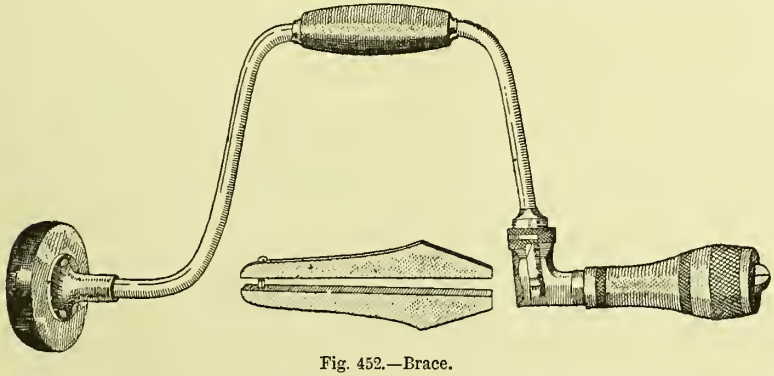


Fig. 452.—Brace.

drive the handle on again. A brad-awl forces apart the fibres of the wood without taking away any of the material, so that a very tight hold is obtained on a brad or screw driven into the hole; it is therefore the best means of making a screw-hole in soft wood, but in hard wood a tool that removes some of the substance should be employed.

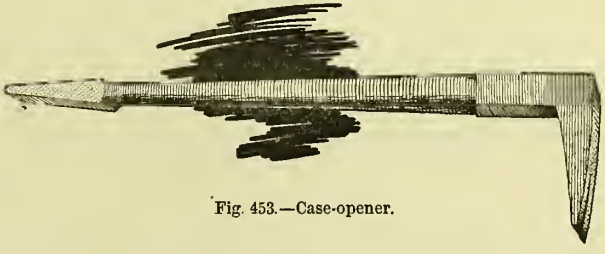


Fig. 453.—Case-opener.

Case-opener.—This is a short lever with one end like a cold-chisel or

wedge, and a claw at the other. It is the best tool for opening boxes and similar purposes. Its cost is 1*s.* to 3*s.*

Centre-punch.—This is used with the hammer to make a dent in metal as a guide to the drill, which would otherwise be difficult to start on the right spot. A punch costs 4*d.* or 5*d.*

Chalk-line and Reel.—A very long mark is made by a cord rubbed with chalk or other colouring matter. The line is fixed at one end and stretched tightly along the place where the mark is to be; it is then raised near the middle and allowed to snap down, making a straight and clear mark. Line and reel cost only a few pence.

Chisels.—Chisels for ordinary use are known as "firmer chisels". The most convenient sizes are 1 inch, ½ inch, and ¼ inch, costing, with handles,

Fig. 454.—Chisel.

9½*d.*, 6½*d.*, and 5½*d.* each, respectively. Mortise-chisels are thicker and heavier than "firmer chisels". They are used for cutting a mortise or deep slot in thick timber. One ¼ inch wide, costing 1*s.* to 1*s.* 6*d.*, will suffice for many sizes of mortise. Chisels of all sorts are sharpened in the same way as plane-irons.

Cold-chisel.—This is a chisel made entirely of steel, for cutting cold metal. It should be ⅝ inch wide and 7 inches long, and cost about 9*d.* A second one, rather longer, but with narrower edge, is useful for cutting plug-holes in brick walls when fixing a heavy bracket or an overmantel.

Compasses.—The legs of compasses should be at least 7 inches long. The cost, with wing or quadrant, is from 1*s.* 3*d.* to 2*s.*

Drills for metal.—Twist-drills are the best,

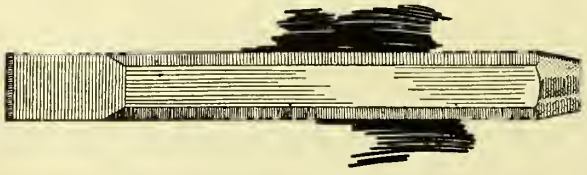


Fig. 455.—Cold-chisel.

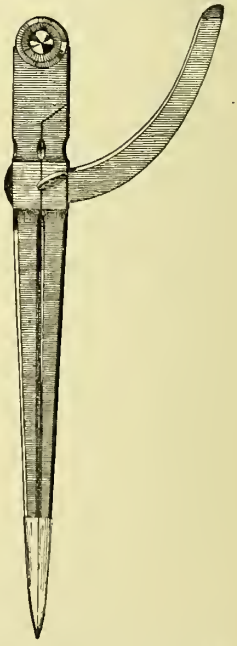


Fig. 456.—Wing Compasses.

costing: ⅛ inch, 8*d.*; ¼ inch, 1*s.* 3*d.*; ⅜ inch, 1*s.* 11*d.*, the last being the largest that can well be used in the hand-brace. But in metal up to, say ⅛ inch thick

a small drill-hole may be enlarged to $\frac{1}{2}$ inch with the "rimer", a tapering bit, square or half-round, which costs 5*d.* or 6*d.* For holes less than $\frac{1}{8}$ inch in metal or hard wood the Archimedean drill-stock is good, but the hand drill-stock (fig. 457) is better. The former costs about 2*s.*, and the latter 5*s.* 6*d.*, and either should have a "chuck" to hold drills of several sizes. The small drills for these cost from 1*d.* to 4*d.* each.

Drills are sharpened on the oil-stone or with an emery-wheel, and they cut only when revolving from left to right.

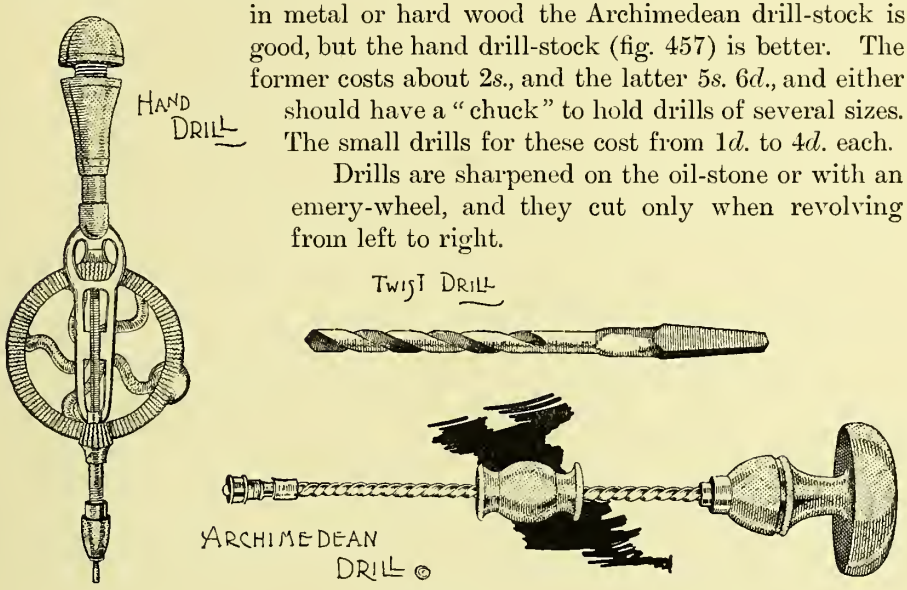


Fig. 457.—Drills.

Files.—The most useful files are the half-round taper, bastard-cut, 8 inches long; the flat, second cut, 7 inches long, with one "safe edge", *i.e.*

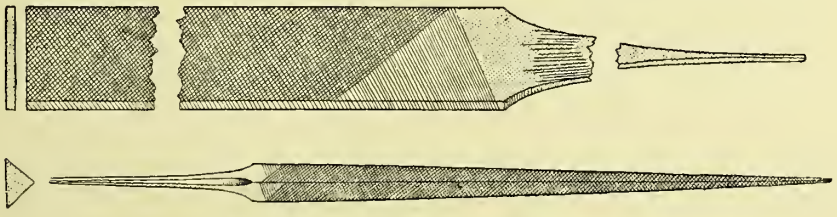


Fig. 458.—Bastard-cut File and Three-square File.

a smooth edge that will not cut downwards or inwards when the side is being used; the half-round taper, smooth, 7 inches long; the three-square, second cut, 7 inches long; and a couple of round tapering files, second cut, 7 inches and 4 inches long respectively. All files cost, roughly speaking, 1*d.* an inch in length, without handles.

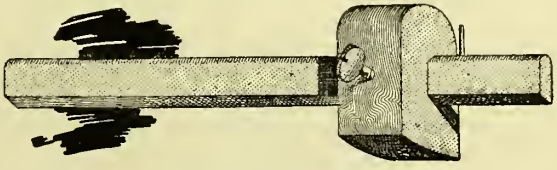


Fig. 459.—Marking-gauge.

Gauges.—The marking-gauge saves much time when many pieces of wood have to be marked at a uniform distance from the edge, but a true edge must be made to each piece for the gauge to run along. A good enough one may be bought for 6*d.*

The mortise-gauge is used when two parallel lines, at any desired distance from the edge and from each other, are required. It costs from 2*s.* 6*d.* upwards.

Gimlets.—Three or four gimlets of varying sizes are required, the twist pattern being the best. They cost 3*d.* or 4*d.* each with wooden handles, but a good set of six, all fitting into one solid brass handle, is to be obtained for 2*s.*, and this is recommended.

Glue-pot and Glue.—There are two pots, the inner one to contain the glue and the outer for water. A cast-iron glue-pot of convenient size may be bought for 1*s.* 6*d.* or 2*s.*; copper pots are much more expensive, and the iron pot is quite satisfactory. The glue should be broken small, put into the inner vessel, and covered with cold water, in which it must soak for a night. The unabsorbed water is then nearly all poured off, and the pot, the outer vessel being half-full of cold water, is placed where it will become heated gradually. Occasional stirring assists the melting of the glue. Scotch glue, which costs 6*d.* or 8*d.* the pound, is the best. A thin coating of glue, very hot, is applied with a thin piece of wood or a brush to both of the surfaces to be joined. The work is then screwed up with cramps, or otherwise held tightly together, and left for a night for the glue to cool and harden.

Gouges.—Two gouges, ground on the outside of the curve, of 1 inch and $\frac{3}{8}$ inch width, respectively, should be bought; they cost a trifle more than

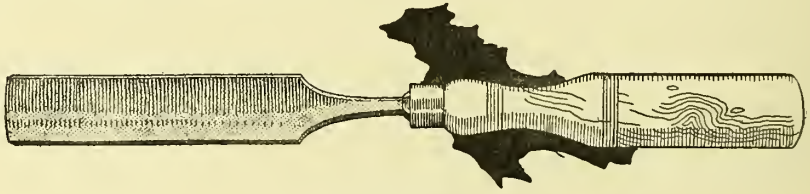


Fig. 460.—Gouge.

chisels of the same sizes. One ground inside the curve, $\frac{3}{4}$ inch wide and costing 10*d.*, is often useful. Gouges are sharpened like chisels, except that for the inside of the curve a small rounded stone, called a slip, is used.

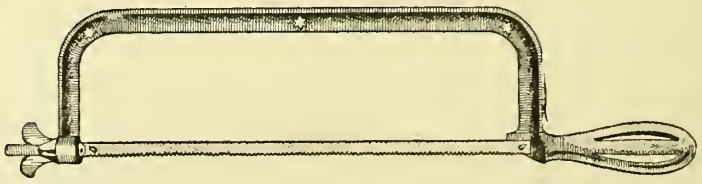


Fig. 461.—Hack-saw.

The slip is held in the hand and rubbed on the tool, not the tool on the slip. This stone may be bought for about 1*s.*

Hacking-knife.—This is for removing old putty from the window-frame. It costs from 7*d.* to 1*s.*

Hack-saw.—This is used for cutting metals. The best is the "Star" saw, the price of which, with cast-iron bow 9 inches long, is 2*s.* 3*d.*,

including one blade. Blades alone cost 3*d.* each. They are made in two degrees of coarseness, the finer being the more useful.

Hammers.—Of these, two are indispensable; one, a large claw-hammer, of which class the "adze-eye" is the best; the striking-face and the inner side of the claws must be steel-faced; a good weight is $1\frac{1}{4}$ lb., and the

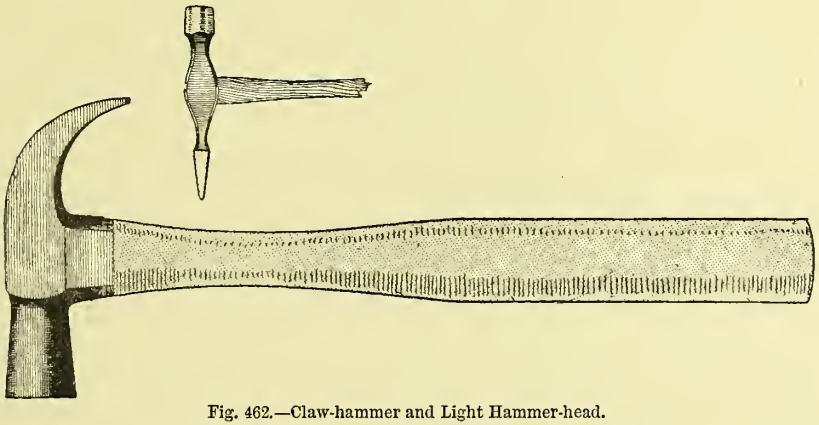


Fig. 462.—Claw-hammer and Light Hammer-head.

price ranges from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* The second hammer, for tack-driving and other light work, should have, instead of the claw, a thin flat end which can pass between the finger and thumb to give the tack a preliminary tap to make it stand up in the wood; the hammer is then reversed and the round end used to drive the tack home. A good tack-hammer costs about 1*s.*

Hatchet.—The American pattern with narrow head is best, as in it the weight is more concentrated than in the English form. A convenient size weighs about $1\frac{3}{4}$ lb., including the handle, and costs 2*s.* 6*d.* or 3*s.*

In using the hatchet let the weight to a great extent control the blow, for if excess of force is applied the aim is apt to be spoilt and a cut made in the wrong place.

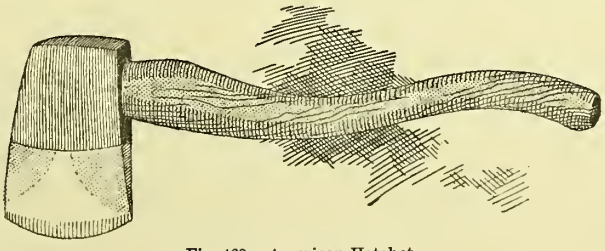


Fig. 463.—American Hatchet.

Mallet.—A joiner's mallet costs from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 4*d.*, but an old croquet mallet with a short handle does just as well.

Materials.—Wood should be bought at a timber-yard, where it can generally be had cut into lengths and planed according to the purchaser's requirements; but for the labour and time employed in preparing it the charge will probably exceed the value of the timber, if the latter is bought in stock sizes and in the rough.

Nail-punches.—A large and a small one, costing 3*d.* to 6*d.* each, will be required.

To hold any punch, do not take it between finger and thumb, but place the thumb, little finger, and middle finger on the side of the tool next to the body, the first and third fingers being on the further side. The punch is then held securely, and in such a manner that it will not slip when struck with the hammer.

Nails.—Of the many sorts of nails only one or two will be required by the amateur. Cut nails must be driven with the long way of the head in line with the grain of the wood, for, the stem of the nail being wedge-shaped in one direction, it will split the wood if not placed correctly. Occasionally a nail twists round while it is being driven, in which case it may be turned back to its right position by means of the claw on the hammer.

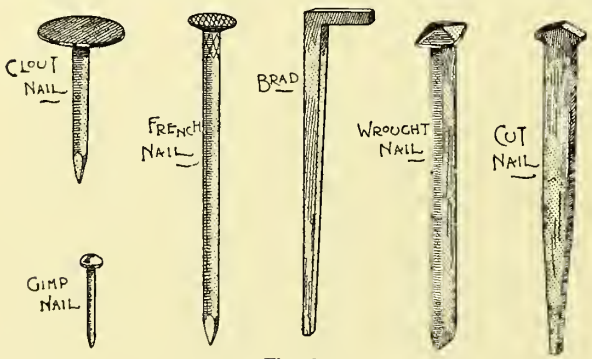


Fig. 464.

Wrought nails are broader and flatter than cut nails, and are driven with the width of the shank across the grain of the wood. Brads, like cut nails, are cut from cold rods of iron. They have a projection on one side only instead of a head, and are used to fasten on mouldings and to nail down floor-boards, or in other places where great holding-power is not required. Brads must also be driven with the heads in line with the grain of the wood to avoid splitting.

French nails are made from wire, either round, square, or oval; they are not so apt to split the wood, as their shanks are parallel, but they do not hold so well as cut or wrought nails.

Clout nails have short shanks and very broad flat heads. They are used for holding down roofing-felt, and in similar work, where a small head would break through the material.

Gimp-pins are made of iron or brass, and may be had in several different colours to match various materials. They are used for fastening the "gimp" or ornamental trimming round the edges of upholstered work; though, where possible, it is better to sew this on with needle and thread.

Brass-headed nails, with stems and heads of iron in one piece, and merely a thin casing of brass over the head, are better than those with solid brass heads. A hollow-headed punch, or a piece of hard wood should be used to receive the direct blow of the hammer, so as not to deface the head of the nail.

Oil-cans.—One of these should contain pure olive oil for use on the oil-stone; and another, of different shape, should be kept for lubricating-oil such as is sold for cycles or sewing-machines. Suitable cans may be had from 1*d.* upwards. Before oiling, wash away any old oil with a little

paraffin, then put on a few drops of the lubricant, and wipe off any superfluous oil, which would only collect dust.

Oil-stone.—The Washita stone is as good as any, and does not cost so much as the Turkey or Arkansas stone. A convenient size is $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches wide and 8 inches long, the price of which, in a case, is about 3*s.* or 3*s.* 6*d.*

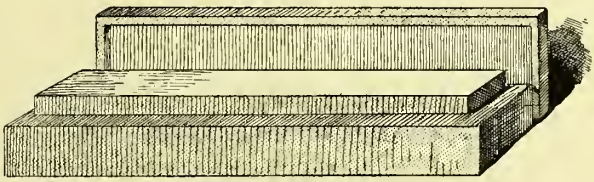


Fig. 465.—Washita Oil-stone.

In using the oil-stone it should be wiped clean, and a few drops of pure olive oil put on it. The left hand holds the tool down on the stone, while the right pushes it along and regulates the angle at which it is ground; the same angle must be maintained throughout, or a curve instead of a bevel will be produced. The actual grinding or sharpening is all done with the forward stroke, so the tool should not be pressed on to the stone during the backward motion.

Pincers.—In using this tool take a grip so firm that it cannot slip, and use the bend of the jaws as a fulcrum, the handles forming a lever. The best make is the Lancashire; the length should be at least 8 inches, and the price about 2*s.* There are cheaper pincers made, but the jaws of these soon become damaged and fail to hold securely.

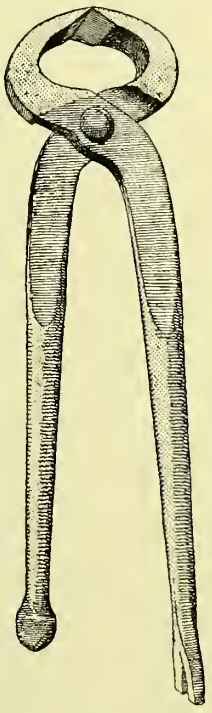


Fig. 466.—Pincers (Lancashire pattern).

Planes.—A jack-plane for removing the rough surface from sawn timber, or for quickly reducing the thickness of the wood; the price from 4*s.* to 5*s.* according to width of iron, which should not be less than $2\frac{1}{8}$ inches. A smoothing-plane, for finishing the work, costs about 1*s.* less than a jack-plane; the iron should be at least 2 inches wide. Both planes should have double irons; the longer one does the cutting, while the shorter, or break-iron, causes the shavings to curl upwards and come clear out of the plane. In the jack-plane the end of the break-iron should be about $\frac{1}{4}$ inch from the edge of the cutter, and in the smoothing-plane considerably nearer.

If the iron does not project sufficiently from the sole of the plane, hit its upper end lightly with the hammer; if it projects too far, and cuts too thick a shaving, a blow on the top of the plane near the front end will cause the iron to recede, after which the wedge must be tightened. In doing so great force must not be used, or the small projections against which the wedge, presses will be split off. To release the irons in order to sharpen the cutter hit the top of the plane near the fore end hard, until the wedge is loose.

The tool-maker charges only 1*d.* or 2*d.* for grinding, and when this has been done the sharpening is finished on the oil-stone (see page 217).

In using the plane the right hand pushes the tool along and guides it, while the left is mainly employed in holding it down to the work, and

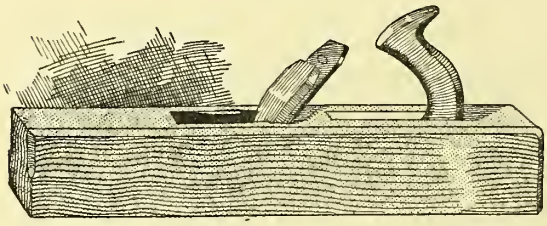


Fig. 467.—Jack-plane.

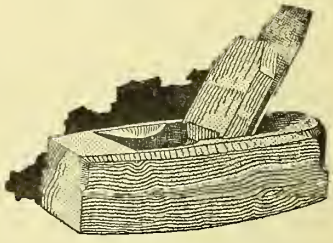


Fig. 468.—Smoothing-plane.

for this reason it should be placed just above, or slightly forward of the cutting edge, the right hand being behind the iron, the forearm nearly level, and as low down as possible. A little tallow or oil rubbed over the sole makes the work much easier, especially if the wood is resinous.

A common plane with cast-iron stock is useful for rough work out of doors, where the good smoothing-plane is likely to be damaged, but the cost is nearly as much as that of the wood-bodied tool of better quality.

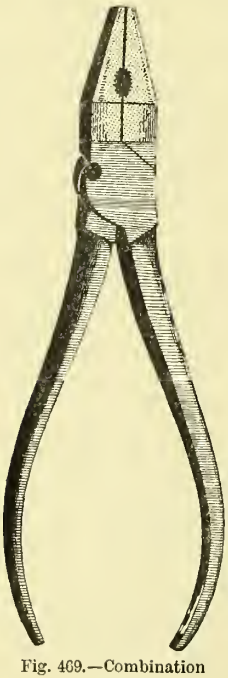


Fig. 469.—Combination Pliers.

Pliers.—Bell-pliers 7 inches long cost about 2*s.* 9*d.* They have cutters at the side, and some have also a nick behind the joint for cutting thick wire. A second pair, 4 inches long, with flat jaws and without cutters, costing 1*s.*, is also required. Round-nosed pliers for bending wire in curved or circular form cost the same as ordinary pliers of similar size.

Gas-pliers have jaws something like pincers, but ribbed inside. They should be adapted for holding objects of several different sizes. The length should be at least 8 or 9 inches, and the cost from 1*s.* 9*d.* to 2*s.*

Putty-knife.—The shape known as the "clipped point" is best; one of medium size costs 10*d.*

Rasp.—The rasp is used for shaping wood too uneven in the grain to be worked with the cutting tools, or when the form of the work renders plane or spoke-shave useless. The best shape is "half round", and one 8 inches long costs about 9*d.*

Saws.—A hand-saw, 26 inches long, costing about 5*s.*; and a tenon-saw, thinner, and with finer teeth than the hand-saw, and having a stiff back, which keeps the blade from bending; length, 14 inches; price, 4*s.* to 5*s.* 6*d.* A key-hole saw, which has a very narrow blade for cutting round curves; price from 6*d.* to 1*s.* 4*d.* complete, the blades alone being 3*d.* or 4*d.* each.

When using any saw remember that it should cut almost with its own weight, the use of force adds little to the speed, and generally results in a crooked cut and a jammed saw; this caution applies especially to the key-hole saw, which easily bends and breaks when hot, if not held quite

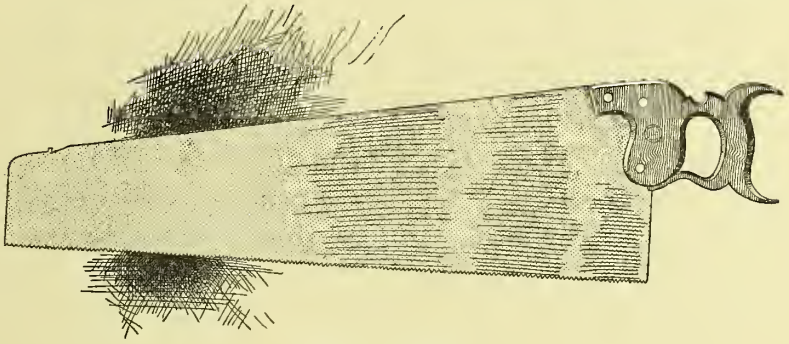


Fig. 470.—Hand-saw.

straight. Before making the cut, mark a line exactly where the saw is to go, for it is much more difficult to cut straight just beside a line than right along it. Stand so that an eye can see each side of the blade, for in that way the tool will be held straight, and the cut will be true. If the saw gets

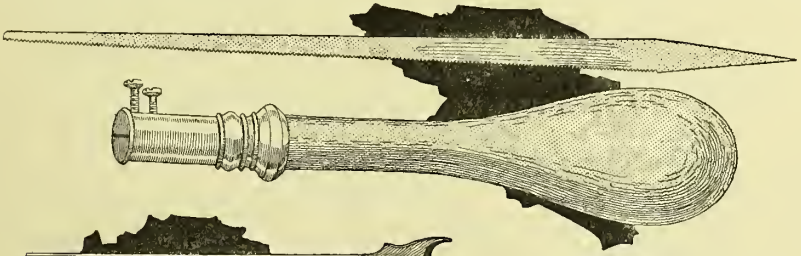


Fig. 471.—Keyhole Saw.

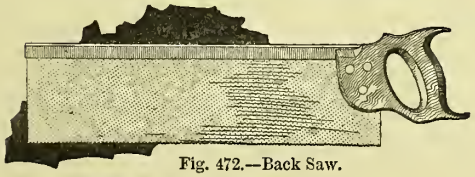


Fig. 472.—Back Saw.

off the line, do not try to twist it back into the straight, but mark a fresh line and begin again, even if that means wasting a piece of wood. Saws used in the hand are sharpened with a file; but this is not easy to do, and the usual charge in a good tool-shop for sharpening and setting is only 4*d*. "Setting" consists in bending the teeth to right and left alternately, but this operation should not be attempted by a novice, for an inexperienced worker is almost certain to break off several of the teeth. The reason for setting is to make the cut a little wider than the thickness of the saw-blade, so that the latter may move freely.

Screw-drivers.—For large screws the London pattern is best; it should be 10 inches or 11 inches long, including the handle, and costs 1*s*. 6*d*. or 2*s*.

For medium screws a thin round one, with a 6-inch blade, costing 1*s.* or 1*s.* 4*d.*, is handiest. A brad-awl may be used for very small screws.

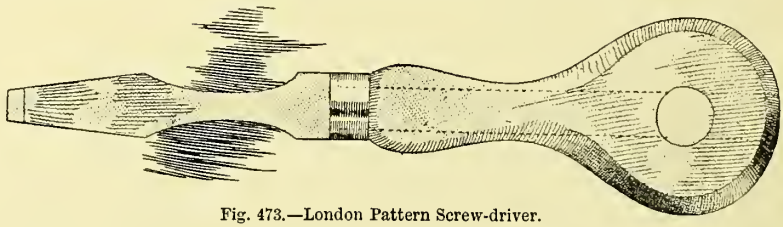


Fig. 473.—London Pattern Screw-driver.

Screws.—Screws are much more economically purchased in large than in small quantities. For example, a single dozen of small iron screws can seldom be obtained for less than 2*d.*, whereas a gross of screws 1 inch long and No. 7 size costs only 6*d.* or 7*d.* Those most frequently in use are ½ inch, Nos. 6 and 8; ¾ inch, Nos. 6 and 7; and 1 inch, Nos. 6 and 7, in iron; and ⅝ inch, No. 6, in brass. Brass screws cost from two to three times as much as iron.

Snips, or Tinmen's Shears.—This tool is required for cutting sheet-

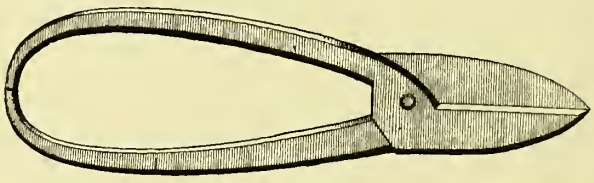


Fig. 474.—Tin Snips.

metal, such as a tin patch for mending a water-can. The Lancashire make, 7 inches long, costs 1*s.* 10*d.*

Soldering-fluid.—A tinsmith uses "killed" spirits or muriatic acid, the energy of which has been expended on scraps of zinc, dropped in one by one until the acid ceases to boil. This fluid is very corrosive, and rusts any iron or steel in its vicinity; but there are several fluxes sold in 6*d.* bottles which are said to be non-corrosive and to emit no unpleasant fumes.

Soldering-iron.—The larger the copper of a soldering-iron the longer will it retain the heat, but one of 12 or 14 ounces is as heavy as can be

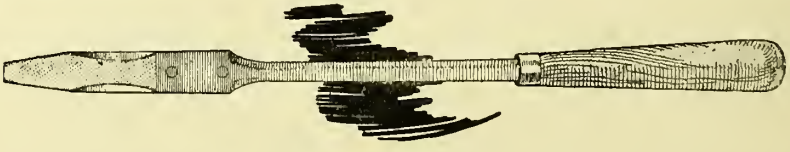


Fig. 475.—Soldering-iron.

easily handled, and costs about 2*s.* 6*d.* A second, of half the weight and cost, is convenient for small work.

Spirit-level.—A level, having a second tube in the end, for use as a plumb or upright, costs 2*s.* or 2*s.* 6*d.*

Spoke-shave.—A spoke-shave having a 2½-inch blade with screw adjustment and brassplated costs about 1*s.* 2*d.*, while one with 1½-inch iron costs 10*d.*

A very good shave with steel stock and detachable wooden handles costs about 3*s.*; this is a most useful tool, as either handle can be removed when working in a confined space, and it is adapted for very small curves.

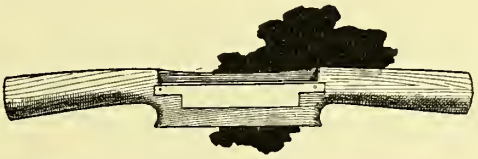


Fig. 476.—Spoke-shave.

Squares.—The try-square should have a 9-inch steel blade. A fairly good one costs from 2*s.* to 2*s.* 6*d.*

The mitre-square is similar to the try-square, except that the blade is set at half a right-angle—or 45 degrees—with the stock. Its cost is about that of the try-square. When many mitre-joints are to be made, a mitre-

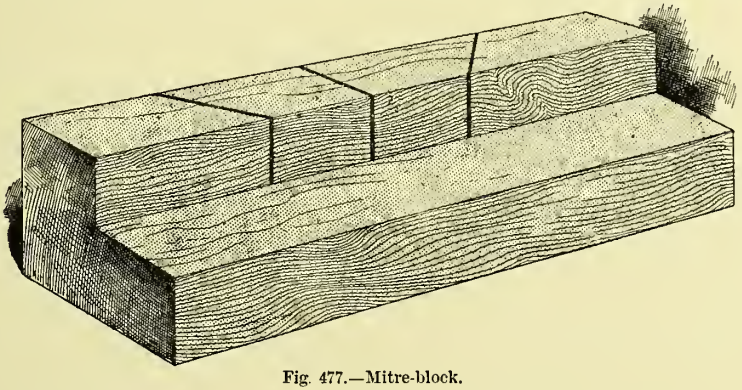


Fig. 477.—Mitre-block.

block is used. In this are two cuts which form guides for the saw, and by its aid much time is saved, for each cut need not be marked out with the mitre-square. The block, if made of beech, costs 1*s.*, but one can easily be made at home. However, as it cannot in every case take the place of the mitre-square, the latter should be included in the collection of tools.

Tack-raiser.—For taking up carpets and for similar purposes a small claw set in a wooden handle is the right thing to use. The claw is curved

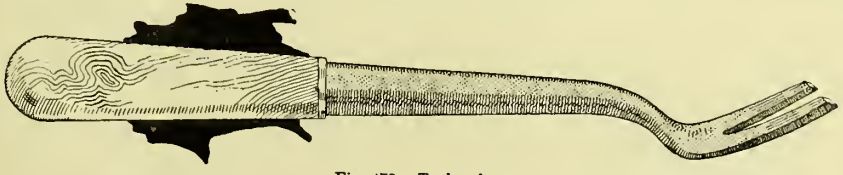


Fig. 478.—Tack-raiser.

so that the bend forms a fulcrum, and the handle a lever; it is pushed under the carpet and the handle depressed, thus loosening the tack. The curve of the claw must not be more acute that in fig. 478, or the claw will not easily

be pushed under the tack. This tool costs about 1*s.* There is a tack-lifter which grips the tack above the carpet, but this pulls off the head, and is not to be recommended.

Tool Handles.—No file, and indeed no other tool, should ever be used without a handle. File-handles quite good enough for the purpose may be purchased for 10*d.* the dozen; those for chisels from 1*s.* 6*d.* the dozen, and for screw-drivers at about ½*d.* per inch in length each.

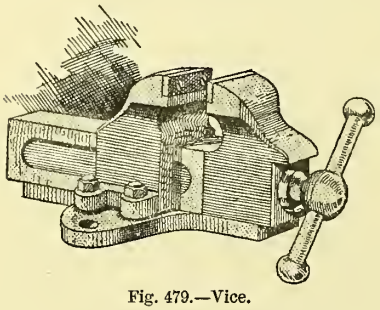


Fig. 479.—Vice.

Trowel.—For odd jobs with cement a small bricklayer's trowel, costing 2*s.* or 2*s.* 6*d.*, is very convenient; but for such work in very confined places the putty-knife may be used.

Vice.—There are many things for which a vice is necessary, such as using the file or the hack-saw. The best kind screws to the top of the bench or other stand, and has jaws which are always parallel. One with jaws 3¼ inches long weighs 19 lbs., and costs 13*s.* It will stand a good deal of rough usage.

Wrench, or Screw-spanner.—A third name for this is the shifting-spanner, for it is adjustable for turning nuts of various sizes. One 10 inches or 12 inches long costing 2*s.* or 2*s.* 6*d.*; and a second, such as is used for cycles, costing at least 2*s.*, will do all the work required in the house.

THE REPAIR OF FURNITURE.

To Mend a Broken Chair-leg.—When the leg of a chair breaks it almost always gives way where one of the cross-bars enters it, and where, in consequence, it is weakest. It is useless to glue together the severed ends, for they are usually broken off "like a carrot", so a new piece must be supplied. The material should be beech, or other hard, close-grained wood, 3 inches longer than the piece broken off. The hole for the cross rail is made 3 inches from the top of the new piece, the spare length being cut to a slope and planed smooth, as in fig. 480. The upper part of the leg is also cut in a similar manner, but sloping in the opposite direction, so that when the two pieces are brought together they form a continuous "stick". The two long surfaces thus obtained afford a good hold for a glued joint, and additional strength is given by screws put in from opposite sides of the leg. They should enter first the thinner parts of the sloping pieces, penetrating into the thicker afterwards. The chair must be set aside until the glue is quite hard, when the joint may be smoothed with sand-paper. The screw-heads, which should be counter-sunk a little below the surface, are then covered with plaster-of-Paris. Putty is not good for this purpose, as it shrinks when drying. When the plaster, which sets very quickly, is

hard, the new wood may be painted or stained and polished to match the rest of the chair.

Castors.—When putting new castors on a chair or other piece of furniture, if the screw-holes are worn too large, or if an old screw is broken in the wood, new holes must be bored. If this is impossible, the old holes must be plugged with wooden pegs dipped into hot glue, and when the glue is hard the ends of the pegs must be trimmed off and holes made in the pegs. If the leg is so riddled with holes that it will not bear plugging, a new foot must be supplied in the same manner as the new end to the leg described above, but in this case, as the article is probably heavy and the strain great, the joint or splice must be $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches or 4 inches long, and more screws must be used.

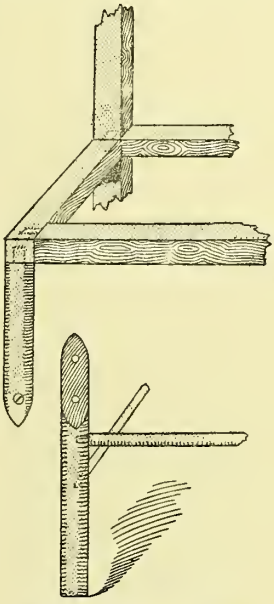


Fig. 480.—Splice in Chair-leg.

To Re-seat a Chair.—In a cane-seated chair this operation is not difficult if a whole chair is taken as a guide. First, clear away the débris of the old seat, punching out from the under-side the pegs which wedge the canes into the holes, then insert the new canes, first those running in one direction, and then the cross canes interlacing them. When driving in the pegs pull down the loops of cane which cover them as each one is hammered in. If it is not essential that the chair should match others having cane seats, an easier and more speedy repair is effected by using one of the perforated wood seats which are sold at the ironmongers' and oil-shops for 3*d.* or 4*d.* each. They are very strong, being made of three thin layers of wood glued together, the middle one placed with the grain at right angles to that of the upper and under layers. A seat of this kind will outlast many cane seats, and cannot become baggy. It is cut to the right size and shape with a fine-toothed saw, and after the old seat has been cleared away is fastened down with brass screws; a couple of coats of "hard-drying" varnish completes the job.

In the case of a stuffed seat in which the webbing supports have given way, the entire seat must be taken off and new webbing nailed on with small clout nails or large tacks. The webbing is sold by ironmongers and cord-dealers at 1*s.* 2*d.* to 1*s.* 9*d.*, according to width, per piece of 18 yards; it should be well stretched, and should be nailed on before it is cut as the long end can be held more firmly and pulled harder than a short piece. The crossing pieces should be interlaced to give greater strength and elasticity.

If the stuffing has become hard and matted it should be well pulled apart, or if the local upholsterer will pass it through his carding-machine, so much the better. A new piece of Hessian or sacking is then put on the seat, and the inner cover, also of Hessian, is fastened on, leaving 3 or 4 inches loose at the centre of the back.

The stuffing is put in, a little at a time, through this opening, and guided to its place by a cane having a forked cut at the end. After it has been all replaced, any small lumps are smoothed away by means of an awl or a very strong needle, thrust through the top of the seat and used as a lever to push the hair into the desired place. Any further padding for which there is still room may then be inserted and the sacking nailed down. Finally the outer covering is put on, gimp or cord being fastened round the edges to complete the work.

THE REPAIR OF DOOR FURNITURE.

Locks and Keys.—When a lock refuses to work do not use force; the application of a poker or anything else used as a lever may break, but will not open, the lock. If the lock is accessible, it should be taken off and examined. Frequently it is only stiff with clogged oil and dust, which a little paraffin will remove; in this case, after it has been cleaned, all the parts which rub together must be touched with a little good lubricating oil. The key should also be oiled. Superfluous oil should be wiped off, as it will only hold the dust and make the lock work stiffly. When a door-lock will not latch the cause is usually a broken spring.

In order to take off a mortise lock, which fits into a recess in the edge of the door, remove the key and one handle, and also the small bolt-knob if there is one, and take out the screws visible in the edge of the door, and any others beneath the thin brass plate which is thus released. The lock should then be drawn towards the edge by means of the spindle which passes through it, and when the second handle and spindle have been removed the lock may be pulled out with the fingers.

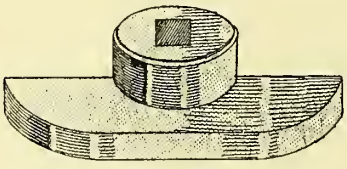


Fig. 481.—Part of Mechanism of Door-lock.

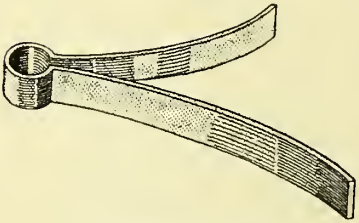


Fig. 482.—Spring of Door-lock.

If the two screws in one side of the lock are withdrawn, the side-plate will come off, revealing the working parts. The broken pieces of the spring will be found inside the lock, and a new one, costing 1*d.* or 2*d.*, must be obtained from the ironmonger or locksmith, the old fragments being used as a guide to the size. The bend of the spring fits over a pin standing up in the lock-case as it lies on its side; one leg of the spring presses against the end of the case, and the other against a piece of metal, shaped as in fig. 481, and having a square hole through which passes the spindle to which the handles are attached.

When the new spring is in position, the side-plate is laid loosely on, and is pushed into its proper place by means of the spindle. The plate can

then be screwed on and the lock reinserted in the door. A lock fastened to the side of a door is removed by taking out the handles and spindle and the screws which hold it to the door; it is then dealt with in the same way as the mortise lock.

Door-handles.—There are so many different methods of fastening door-handles that it is impossible here to describe any but the commonest of all, in which the handle is secured to the spindle by means of a screw passing through its side. This screw, as well as the hole through which it enters, becomes worn in course of time; the screw then falls out, and the handle comes off. A new screw, thicker than the first, will keep the handle on for a while, or a piece of string tied round the handle, and fitting into the nick of the old screw-head, will form a temporary make-shift. It is generally more satisfactory, however, to get a new handle and screw; the cost is only a few pence, unless the handle is very ornamental.

THE REPAIR OF WINDOW-FITTINGS.

Window-sash Lines.—In windows with two sashes which slide up and down in the frame the sashes are maintained at any desired height by means of counterbalancing weights, moving within a pocket at each side of the frame. These weights are attached to the sashes by cords or lines running over pulleys inserted in the frame near the top. For very heavy sashes the lines are sometimes made of chain, or of closely-coiled strips of copper; for those of moderate size plaited "sash-line" is used. An ordinary twisted cord is not strong enough. When a line gives way, unless from some accidental cause, it is a sign that all those of the same age are becoming weak, and require immediate renewal. Even if no worse damage is done, the glass is almost certain to break if the sash falls suddenly through the failure of the supporting cords.

If the upper sash is to be re-corded, both sashes must be taken out of the frame; but if the lower one only is to be repaired, the upper one need not be disturbed. The "beads", or slips of wood at the sides of the frame, which prevent the lower sash from falling into the room, are first removed by forcing a strong screw-driver between the bead and the solid part of the frame, and using it as a lever. If this is done about midway up, the bead may be bent and pulled out, with the nails which hold it. The lower sash should be pushed right down, and the cords nailed temporarily to the side of the window-frame a few inches beneath the pulleys.

If found to be in good condition they should now be unfastened from the sash by removing the nails which hold them; but when new ones are to to be put in they may be cut through, and the sash lifted out so that the old nails and ends may be cleared away.

When new cords are required for the lower sash, a string is tied to the

loose end of the old cord, the temporary nail is then removed, and the weight allowed to run gently to the bottom of the pocket, the other end of the string is tied to the new cord to allow of its being pulled through the hole in the side of the frame, and so down to the bottom of the pocket. Between the two sashes is a very narrow bead of wood, which fits tightly into a deep groove in the side of the frame, and is not, or should not be, fastened in any other way; this bead must now be pulled out carefully to avoid breaking it, when the lower end of the "pocket-piece" will be seen a few inches from the bottom of the frame. The pocket-piece is a loose part of the frame, which may be removed, to give access to the weights, by inserting into a small hole at one end a small screw-driver or similar implement and so prising it out. The weight may then be lifted out, bringing with it the old cord, the string, and the end of the new cord. The new line is fastened to the weight in the same way as the old one, care being taken that no loose end or knot projects which might cause the weight to stick, and prevent its free passage up and down the pocket. When the weights have been restored to their places the pocket-pieces and second beads are put back. While the cord is loose it is well to take out the pulleys at the top of the frame, and oil them, as this cannot be done satisfactorily while they are in position.

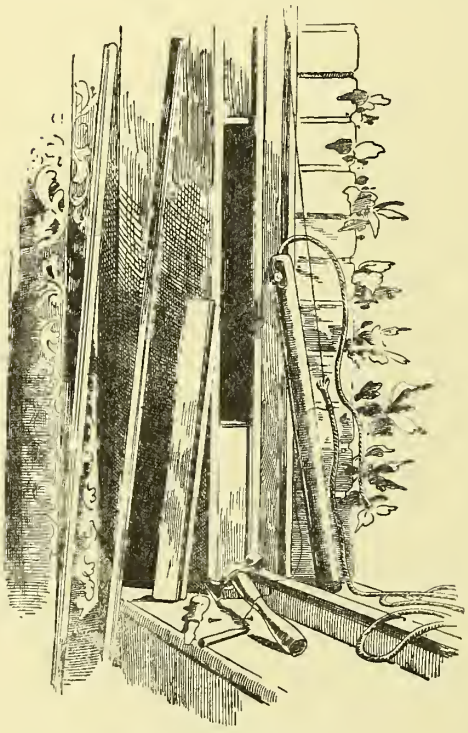


Fig. 483.—Lower part of Window-sash and broken Sash-line.

To ascertain the length of cord required for either sash, measure the distance from the top of the sash concerned to the point to which the old cord reached. This will be from 7 to 10 inches, according to the size of the sash. Then pull the cord so as to bring the weight to the top of the pocket, securing it temporarily in that position by a nail driven through the cord into the frame, and cut off the cord the required number of inches below the top of the sash when it is pushed down to the bottom of the frame. The heads of the clout-nails with which the cords are fastened to the sash must be driven well below the surface, so that they may not scrape against the side of the frame when the sash is moved. The fastening of the cords to the sash is the only really difficult part of the work. If possible, an assistant should hold the sash while the nails are being driven in, but it

can be done by one man if the sash is propped up on a block of wood or an empty box about 6 inches high. When the cords are secure, the nails holding them temporarily may be removed, and the sash slid into position.

In order to rehang the upper sash, take out the lower one and the inner beads, as already described; the upper one may then be dismounted in the same manner. The weights for the top sash come out of the same pocket-hole as those of the lower, which must be removed first. They should be distinct, however, as there is often a difference in the weights of the two sashes, and consequently, in the counterpoises.

Between the two weights there is a thin lath which prevents them from catching against each other. This lath is fastened at the top only, and care must be taken not to break it. The new cords for the upper sash must be put in before those of the lower one, as the weights of the latter would be in the way if fixed first. After nailing the lines to the upper sash, run it up into its place and insert those for the lower one, but do not attach them to their sash until the pocket-pieces and second beads have been replaced. To refix the beads which hold the lower sash into the frame, cut off the nails close to the wood, for if driven out they would make unsightly marks. Fasten the bead with five or six new nails with small heads, or with brass screws, which are more easily removed if the sash has to be taken out again. While fixing the beads press them gently against the sash, so that they will prevent it from rattling, but not so close that it can only be moved with difficulty.

Flax sash-line costs 9*d.* or 10*d.* per piece of 12 yards. Before using it uncoil the cord and fasten one end to some fixed object, such as a tree or a railing, and pull as hard as possible so as to stretch the cord well. If this is not done it will, after a little use, become so slack that the weights will not support the sashes.

Draughts.—Badly fitting doors or windows are best rendered wind-proof by strips of felt held in place by wooden beading; rubber draught-stopping is not so good, for it soon becomes hard and inelastic.

Felt stopping is sold in 6-feet lengths at about 10*d.* the length, but it is rather unnecessarily expensive, and old felt, useless for anything else, is all that can be desired. Suitable wood beading may be had from ½*d.* a foot, and may be stained and varnished, or painted to match the other wood-work. For the draught under a door by far the best cure is a roller, working in slots so that it may rise over the carpet or mat when the door is open, falling to the floor again when it is closed. This roller costs 2*s.* 6*d.* for 3 feet length, 2*s.* 9*d.* for 3 feet 6 inches, 3*s.* 3*d.* for 4 feet, and 3*s.* 6*d.* for 4 feet 6 inches. (See also "Draught Preventers", vol. i.)

Rattling Windows.—Windows that rattle may be silenced by wedging the sashes together, but a better remedy is a pair of rubber wheels fastened to the window-frame by screws through their centres, so that they revolve when the sash is moved, and always keep it silent. They have the additional advantages that they are always in position, they need not be removed when the window is opened or shut, and they cannot be mislaid and so

necessitate a nocturnal hunt for a substitute. These wheels cost 3*d.* or 4*d.* the pair.

Venetian Blinds.—The cords by which the blinds are raised or lowered pass over grooved wheels or pulleys fixed in the thick board at the top, and then down through holes in the laths, and are prevented from returning by knots tied at their ends. When the slots in which the pulleys run become widened through wear, the pulleys can "wobble", so that the cord sometimes jumps off and is jammed between the pulley and the side of the slot. When this occurs, remove the screws which fasten the blind to the top of the window-frame or to brackets, and take down the blind and release the cord. In order to prevent a recurrence of the accident, screw a narrow piece of wood, or a piece of tin doubled over, to the upper side of the board on each side of the pulley, so that, while it can revolve freely, it cannot move sideways. If a pulley should be chipped, causing the cord to slip out of the groove, a new one should be inserted by punching in one end of the wire on which the pulley revolves until the other end can be grasped by the pliers and pulled straight out far enough to release the old wheel. The new pulley can then be put in and the wire pivot driven back again. A dozen pulleys may be bought for a few pence at the ironmonger's.

When renewing the tapes, use those known as "woven-ladder" tapes, in which the cross-pieces supporting the laths are woven into the uprights. They are made in various colours, but some shades, especially red, fade so rapidly under the strong sunlight to which the blind is exposed that it is best always to use the string-coloured tape which is more frequently seen than any other. The price depends much upon the colour, ranging from 2½*d.* to 4*d.* the yard, a whole piece of 72 yards being charged at a lower rate. The width of the laths governs the distance between the cross-tapes. If this is too great the laths will not overlap sufficiently to exclude the light.

When fixing new tapes, do not take the blind down bodily, but begin by removing the tacks from the lowest lath, and cut off the knots on the ends of the cords. Pull the cords up through the laths, but not through the board at the top containing the pulleys, and let them hang down outside the blind. Slide the laths out and then unfasten the old tapes from the top board; nail on the new tapes at the top, taking care not to cover the hole through which the cord passes; put back the laths and run the cords through again in such a way that the cross-tapes are alternately to left and right of them. When the bottom lath is passed tie knots on the cords and nail the tape to the under-side of the last lath, and the work is completed.

THE REPAIR OF WATER FITTINGS.

Water Taps.—In the old-fashioned tap, which opens and closes by a quarter-turn of the handle, there is a central plug having a hole through it. When this is turned so that the hole is in line with the pipe the water

flows, the supply ceasing when the plug is turned back to the first position. In course of time this plug becomes worn and the tap no longer controls the water. In such cases it cannot be satisfactorily repaired; a new one should be fitted.

In the modern "screw-down valve" there is also a central piece, called the "plunger", which is moved vertically by means of the screw, so that its end closes the orifice through which the water comes. This plunger has a loose revolving end, to which is attached a washer or "valve-seating" of india-rubber or other yielding material. For cold water the washer is generally made of rubber and canvas, but for hot water something that will stand a high temperature must be employed, and the best is a composition known as "woodite". The washer, being softer than the metal of which the tap is made, wears out comparatively soon, but it is very easily renewed, after which the tap is as good as ever.

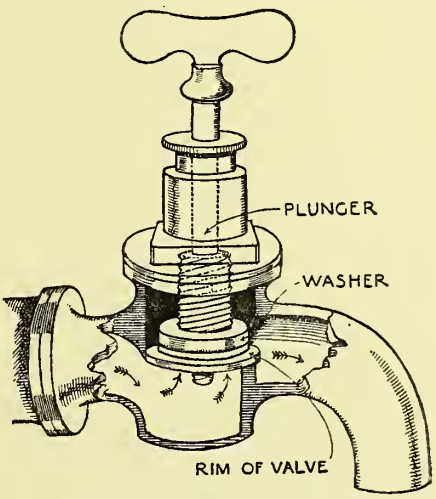


Fig. 484.—Screw-down Valve Water-tap.
The arrows indicate direction of flow of water.

The upper part of the tap, containing the handle, with the plunger attached, is removable, but there is usually a small screw in the side which prevents it from becoming unscrewed accidentally, and this screw must first be taken out. Screw-down valves are frequently made with a left-hand screw. If the upper part does not move when turned in one direction the other should be tried, the large screw-wrench being used with only moderate force, or damage may be done to the tap. The washer is sometimes attached to the plunger-end by a screw through its centre, at others by a cap screwing over the end of the plunger-foot.

The plunger works through a "stuffing-box", or chamber, filled with cotton or tow-packing pressed round the shank of the plunger by means of a nut which screws down into the box. This nut occasionally works loose and causes leakage, but a turn or two with the wrench will make it tight again. This must be done with care, or the plunger will be packed so tight that it cannot be turned easily, in which case the nut must be slackened a little. If the packing is worn away, the nut must be screwed right up, and some cotton or tow, saturated with tallow, not oil, wound tightly round the stem of the plunger until there is just room for the nut to enter the thread in the side of the stuffing-box.

Before the tap is taken to pieces the water must, of course, be cut off. When the tap is supplied direct from the main pipe, the stop-cock outside the house must be closed; when the supply comes from a cistern, it should be cut off there; and if there is no stop-cock just outside the cistern, an old

broom-handle may be cut to a blunt point, so that it will enter the pipe inside the cistern. Wrap a piece of rag round the end of the stick, drive it, without great force, into the pipe, and after the dead-water has been drawn off, the tap may be taken to pieces. The broom-stick may also be used with advantage to stop the flow of water through a pipe burst by the frost, or damaged in any other way.

In the case of a hot-water tap supplied from a high-pressure boiler, the water can only be cut off by means of the stop-cock outside the hot-water cistern. Hot-water apparatus, however, is dangerous to meddle with when not fully understood, and in this case the tap had better be attended to by a competent plumber or engineer.

Ball-cocks.—When a ball-cock leaks, the water must be cut off, and the plunger fitted with a new washer, as in the case of the screw-down valve. The plunger is sometimes held in by a pin passing through a "lug" or projection underneath the pipe in which it works, while in other cases a screw-cap retains it in position. In small cisterns, such as the "waste-preventer", or flushing-tank in the water-closet, the stem of the ball sometimes gets bent, so that the ball rubs against the interior of the tank, and cannot move freely, thus failing to shut off the water when the cistern is full. In this case the rod must be straightened.

Electric Bells.—The electric current, by which the bell is caused to ring, is generated in a battery consisting of one or more cells or jars containing the elements zinc and carbon, the former usually in the form of a rod with a copper wire at its upper end, to which one of the conducting wires is fastened; the latter either loose, in a porous earthenware cylinder, or as a block surrounded by two rubber bands to keep it apart from the zinc. The carbon is provided with a "binding screw", to which the second conducting wire is attached. Crushed sal-ammoniac, about ¼ lb. to a quart cell, is put into the jar, which is then nearly filled with water. The rim of the jar is wiped dry, and thinly coated with oil or some other greasy substance, such as vaseline, to prevent the saline solution from creeping over the edge, and so making a moist and acid deposit on the outside of the jar and its surroundings. The Leclanché cell, as this is called, after its inventor, is the most suitable for bell work.

In a battery of several cells the zinc in one is connected with the carbon in the next, leaving a zinc terminal free at one extremity, and a carbon at the other, for the attachment of the wires which conduct the current. For an average house of ten or twelve rooms a battery of two quart cells provides ample power. If the metal wire from the battery comes into actual contact with any other metal, such as a gas-pipe, the current will follow the pipe, as that affords a larger conducting-surface than the wire. The conductor must therefore be insulated, *i.e.* completely covered with some material (such as india-rubber), which is a non-conductor of electricity.

The bell consists of a gong, a hammer, and an electro-magnet; the last being a bar of iron surrounded by a coil of insulated wire. When the current passes through the coil, the iron bar becomes magnetized and

attracts the hammer, which in turn strikes the gong. The current is then automatically cut off, upon which the hammer is drawn back by a spring, and the circuit is again completed; and so on until the battery is "run down".

The circuit must therefore be so constructed that it is complete only when the bell is to ring; and for this purpose the "push" is employed in the following manner. At any convenient spot the conducting-wire is

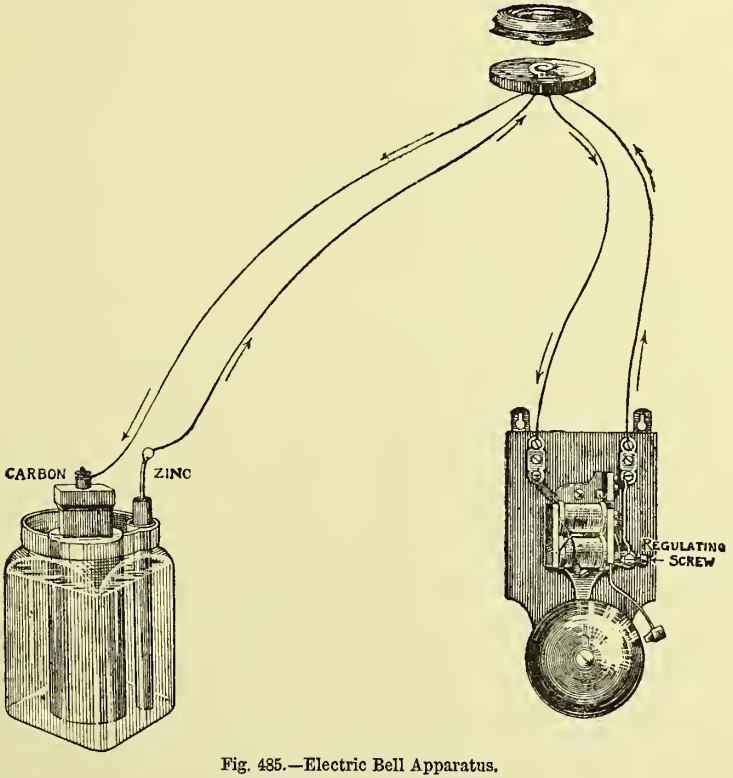


Fig. 485.—Electric Bell Apparatus.

severed, and the "broken" ends are attached to two pieces of brass inside the push. One of these lies flat at the bottom of the push-case, and the other springs up towards the cover of the case. When the push-button is pressed, this second piece of brass is made to touch the first piece, completing the circuit, and causing the bell to ring; and when the button is released the springy piece of brass flies up, breaking the circuit, and the bell is silent.

The battery should be covered to keep off dust, and it should be placed in a cool place, so that the water may not evaporate quickly. It, however, requires filling up with water occasionally, but beyond this it should not need attention more frequently than about every eighteen months. After being in use for this period it becomes weak, and the bell sounds more and more feebly, until at last it is altogether silent. The battery should then

be revived by putting fresh sal-ammoniac into each cell and filling up with water. If the zinc is nearly all eaten away, it should be taken out and scraped bright, or renewed. Zinc rods cost 3*d.* or 4*d.* each.

If the bell does not ring, and the battery is known to be sufficiently powerful, there is probably some leakage of the current, or a fault in the conductor. The wires must be examined to see that the insulation is perfect. All joints should be scraped bright; and the connections should be remade as tightly as possible. If the bell still does not sound, the small screw controlling the bar to which the hammer is attached may require adjusting. To do this, unscrew the cover of the push and insert a halfpenny, or any piece of metal, so that it touches both of the brass parts of the push, thus completing the circuit. The screw against which the hammer-bar rests, when not attracted by the magnet, should then be turned, a very little at a time, first in one direction and then in the other, until its right position is indicated by the ringing of the bell.

If there is still no sound after all joints, insulation, and adjustments have been tested, the bell itself must be at fault, and should be taken to an electrician for repair.

Soldering.—The surfaces to be united must be made perfectly clean by scraping or filing, and must be quite free from grease of any sort, or the solder will not adhere. For mending kettles or cans "Tinman's solder" is used. It costs about 8*d.* a lb., but a stick costing 1*d.* or 2*d.* will suffice for many odd jobs. The iron should be heated to a bright cherry-red, but not hotter or it will be burnt. If, however, it is accidentally made too hot, it must be filed with a coarse file until a new bright surface is obtained, and then heated again to the right temperature. A gas-heater is better for this purpose than the fire, as it does not make the iron so dirty. When the tool is hot enough, wipe it clean, brush it over with soldering-fluid, and hold it against the solder until the copper is thinly coated, or "tinned". Apply some fluid to the surfaces to be joined, hold them together, or fasten them with wire or by other means as may be most convenient, and melt a small quantity of solder along the joint. The solder hardens very quickly, and the article may be used as soon as it is cool, but it should first be washed to remove all the soldering-fluid.

If the solder will not melt, the iron is too cold; if it will not adhere to the work, there is some grease or other foreign matter present, which must be removed. First attempts are apt to bring disappointment, but the knack of soldering well and neatly is easily acquired with a little practice. The beginner's most common fault lies in using too great a quantity of solder.

In certain situations the work cannot be reached with the copper-bit, and a blow-pipe must be used to direct the flame from a gas-jet or spirit-lamp on to the solder, until it melts. The blue part of the flame is the hottest, and does not cover the work with soot.

Mending China and Glass.—In the case of broken articles of china or glass which are used for liquids, either cold or hot, the pieces must be

riveted together, as no cement will hold under such conditions for any length of time. Riveting can only be done by an expert, whose charge is usually 2*d.* for each rivet inserted, but if the work is properly done it will last almost indefinitely.

When the article is not intended to come into contact with any liquid, the fragments may be united with any good cement, but some of the adhesives which are said to mend anything are of little use. The broken pieces should be washed, care being taken not to rub the rough edges, and dried before the fire, or in the oven, until they are quite warm, so that the cement may not be chilled too rapidly. Apply the thinnest possible coating of cement to each surface, using a slip of wood, a brush is too bulky; then press the pieces together so as to squeeze out the superfluous cement, and hold the article until the adhesive has set, or tie it up with sewing-cotton or string, or apply moderate pressure in some other way. The cement which has exuded from the joint may be wiped off with a hot wet cloth, and the article must be left for some hours, in a moderate temperature, to allow the cement to get hard.

To Re-glaze a Window.—The first thing to be done when putting in a new pane of glass is to remove the old putty with the hacking-knife and hammer. Then measure the exact size of the aperture, and have the glass cut $\frac{1}{4}$ inch smaller each way, *i.e.* $\frac{1}{8}$ inch smaller all round. Make the putty soft by rolling it between the hands, and put a thin "bed" all round the frame. If a thin coat of paint is given first, the putty will adhere much more firmly. Press the glass gently, but firmly, into position, until it rests evenly against the putty-bed, then put on more putty to hold the glass in, using the putty-knife to press it and smooth it off neatly. The knife must be quite clean, and the finishing touches given with a light hand. The putty which has been squeezed out on the outer side of the window, should then be trimmed off. When the putty has hardened, which may take a few days, or a week or two, according to the weather, it should be painted to match the rest of the wood-work. The paint preserves the putty from the effects of the weather. When the glass is very large and heavy, one or two nails, the heads of which have been cut off, should be put in to hold the glass until the putty hardens. These nails must be so short that the putty covers them.

Window glass costs from $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ the square foot, the price depending on the quality and thickness. For small squares, glass weighing 15 ozs. to the foot is thick enough, but for large panes it should weigh 26 or 32 ozs.

Plate glass about $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick costs from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* the square foot for small pieces, the rate per foot increasing with the size, a pane 12 square feet in area being charged at from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* the foot. Putty costs about $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ or 2*d.* the pound, and may be bought at any oil-shop, though that obtained where the glass is bought would probably be of better quality; it should be made with linseed-oil, and not with fish-oil, which dries too slowly.

ENTERTAINING.

The instinct of hospitality is one which exists, though to a varying degree among different peoples, in the breast of every normal human being, and from the fundamental desire to show hospitality springs the desire to entertain. The strict meaning of the word hospitality is "kindness to strangers", while the meaning of the verb to entertain is "to receive and treat with hospitality, to engage the attention, and to occupy it agreeably; to maintain, to harbour, to cherish, and to amuse". When the real meaning of hospitality and entertainment is understood, and host and hostess are actuated by right motives, the giving of entertainments becomes a virtue, and not, as is too often the case, a mere excuse for ostentation, the furtherance of social ambition, and the display of extravagance.

Although entertainments given from such motives are to be deprecated, it must be admitted that circumstances sometimes necessitate gorgeous and stately functions. At the same time, it is to be deplored if the existence of such entertainments should tend to raise the standard of luxury, and thereby deter persons of no great social standing and of moderate income from offering to their friends and acquaintances any hospitality which it is in their power to show. For the encouragement of would-be hostesses in such a position, it may truly be said that small informal festivities are often the most enjoyed and appreciated. Be the income small or large, however, the giver of any entertainment should make herself acquainted with certain rules, a knowledge of which is necessary to success.

Other times, other manners. And fashions change in entertainments as in other things. For instance, the wedding reception and tea have largely superseded the wedding breakfast. In what is known as "the smart set" of London society alterations and innovations are constantly taking place, but among the generality of well-bred people certain broad rules have been, and will be, accepted as correct for many years.

Varying degrees of significance attach to certain forms of entertainment, but dinners still maintain their former dignity, and are considered in England of more social importance than other forms of hospitality. Next in consequence to the dinner-party comes the ball, an expensive form of entertainment rarely given except by the possessor of a large income and a large acquaintance. Dances, evening parties, and afternoon receptions follow in the order of precedence; while such informal parties as lunches, little dinners, and teas complete the list of social festivities.

Before, however, any entertainments can be given, a basis in the shape of a circle of acquaintances must exist. In order to form a circle of acquaintances, the fashion of paying and receiving afternoon calls has been introduced. Certain recognized customs prevail in this matter. In the case of a young married couple dwelling in a town or its environs, the relatives of both families, and the former friends, would naturally call upon the bride, and then extend some hospitality to the newly-married pair. Thus new acquaintances would be made, some of whom would ask permission to call. In the country etiquette is somewhat different. When new-comers arrive, it is usual for a lady of good position in the neighbourhood to be the first to call, if she is satisfied as to their social status. If she makes a favourable report, her friends follow suit.

A difficulty arises when persons of small means settle in an entirely new neighbourhood, for then, unless introductions have been procured, it is probable that only the clergyman of the parish, and perhaps a few more or less undesirable people anxious to make new acquaintances, will call. In London and in other large towns, and in the suburbs, one lady does not call upon another without some previous introduction.

A necessary complement to the paying of calls is the leaving of cards.

VISITING-CARDS.

The *raison d'être* of visiting-cards is simple. They are used merely to represent the person with whose name they are engraved. For instance, Lady A. calls on Mrs. B., who is not at home. When Mrs. B. returns, the cards which Lady A. has left acquaint her with the fact that Lady A. has visited her. This, though a small matter, is to some extent an important one, inasmuch as a visit demands a return visit. If the name of the caller were merely entrusted to a servant it might be forgotten, and no record of the visit would remain. A return call would not be paid, and no acquaintance would be formed.

Custom demands that certain rules be observed as to the shape, size, and appearance of visiting-cards. They should be of white cardboard of medium thickness, with plain edges, and absolutely devoid of any ornamentation. Fancy printing or any other lettering than that known as "copper-plate" is not correct. A lady's card should measure about $3\frac{5}{8}$ by $2\frac{3}{8}$ inches, a gentleman's card about 3 inches by $1\frac{1}{2}$. The name should be inscribed in a moderate-sized copper-plate in the centre of the card, and the address in the lower left-hand corner (Plate XLVIII., figs. 1 and 2).

Should the owner of the card possess both a town and country house, the two addresses may be printed one in each of the lower corners (Plate XLVIII., fig. 3); while in the case of a gentleman who belongs to a club, its name is printed in the lower right-hand corner (Plate XLVIII., fig. 4).

The husband's name should not be printed on his wife's card, but the

name of a daughter who is "out" should appear below that of her mother (Plate XLVIII., fig. 5).

Should there be two grown-up daughters, the names may be printed separately, or "The Misses Walker" may be inscribed below their mother's name. A young lady does not have cards of her own unless she is a motherless daughter, and even then a girl so situated is generally chaperoned by a relation or intimate friend, her name being printed on the card of her chaperon. When a young girl is on a visit, if it is necessary for her to pay a call on a friend of her hostess, her name should be written in pencil underneath that of her temporary chaperon; and if she has occasion to leave cards on a lady unknown to her chaperon, she should leave her chaperon's card, with the name of that lady struck through with a pencil line (Plate XLVIII., fig. 6).

A motherless young lady living with, and acting as hostess for, her father or brother, might, after the age of twenty-five or twenty-six, have her own cards, but such a course would scarcely be correct if pursued by a younger woman. An exception to this rule is made in the case of a girl who follows a profession and lives by herself; then the laws of society are not, for obvious reasons, so strictly enforced.

On the card of a lady who observes a regular At Home day, "Thursdays", "1st Thursdays", "Mondays in November", or whatever days are decided upon, may be printed or pencilled across the top left-hand corner (Plate XLVIII., fig. 7). This is a fashion which is not altogether to be recommended; of the two courses, it is better to adopt that of writing the words in pencil. If any change of address is made on a card, it should be written in pencil. Such alterations are supposed to be temporary; otherwise new cards should be engraved with the correct address.

When several sisters, whose parents are dead, live together, the eldest is regarded as the hostess. If they are all grown up, they should have separate cards; but if the younger members of the family can still be looked upon as "girls", their names should be printed on the card of the eldest sister.

All gentlemen, married or single, have their own cards. It is quite incorrect, even in the case of a young unmarried man, to omit the prefix Mr.

THE ETIQUETTE OF PAYING AND RECEIVING CALLS AND OF CARD-LEAVING.

Formal Calls.—Calls are paid between three and six o'clock in the afternoon. A first call, which is of necessity formal, should not extend beyond ten or fifteen minutes, and should, if possible, be paid between 3.30 and 4.30. After the first call it is not necessary to observe quite such strict etiquette. In some cases an acquaintance is begun by a formal leaving of cards, and not by a call. Cards should be merely handed to the servant with the words "For Mrs. Brown", but when a call is made the enquiry

Fig. 1.

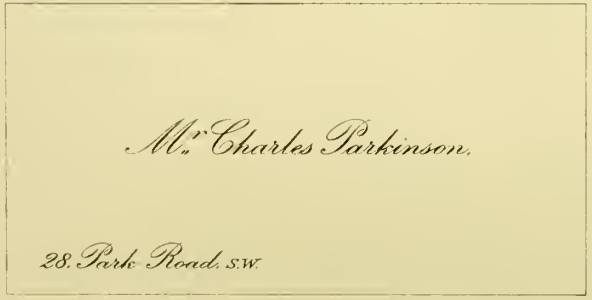


Fig. 2.

Fig. 3.

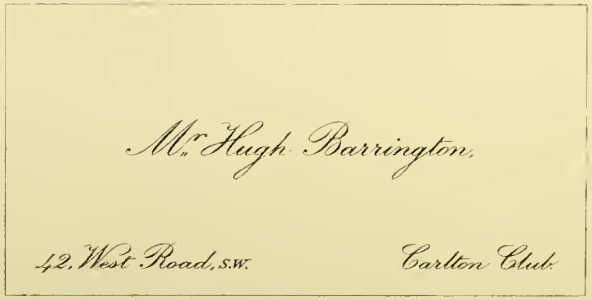


Fig 4.

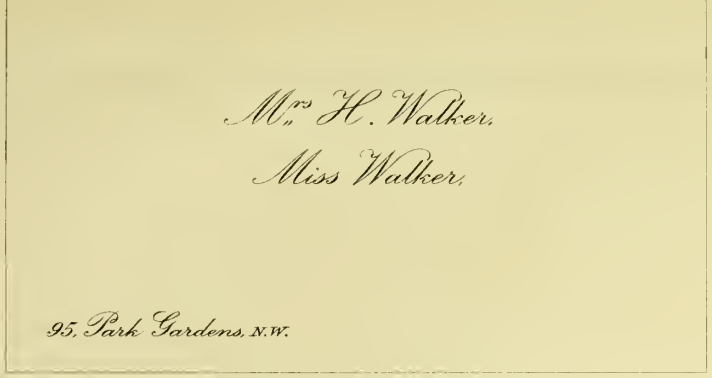


Fig. 5.

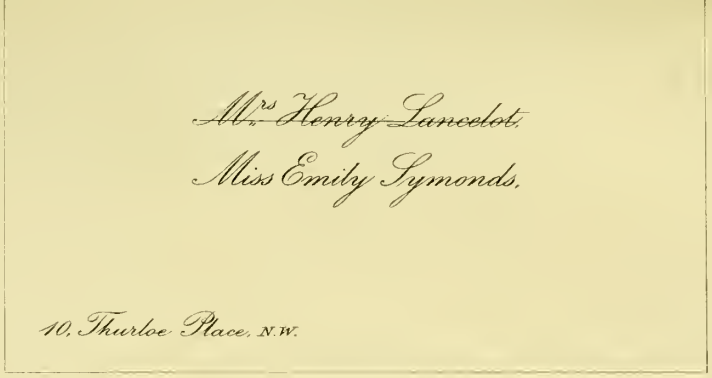


Fig. 6.

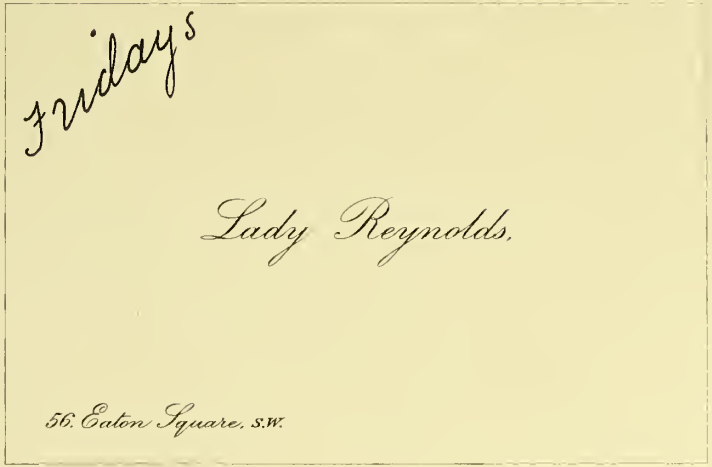


Fig. 7.

would be, "Is Mrs. Brown at home?" It is important that the servant should be taught to distinguish between a call and the leaving of cards, as it would be considered "bad form" to return the leaving of cards by a call, or a call by merely leaving cards. A lady who has been asked, or who has herself begged for permission to call on another lady, should pay a personal call, as this is considered more complimentary than a formal leaving of cards.

Formal calls should be paid once or twice a year on all acquaintances. Between friends, who presumably see each other with some frequency, regular and formal calling is unnecessary.

What Cards to Leave when Calling.—When one married lady calls upon another married lady who is not at home, she leaves one of her own and two of her husband's cards—one of the latter for the lady and the other for the gentleman. If the hostess is at home, only her husband's cards should be left. If a gentleman accompanies his wife to pay a call, and the hostess is in, he leaves one card for the host if absent. When the host is at home it is unnecessary to leave any cards.

When a married lady calls on a widow and finds that she is not at home, she should leave one of her own cards and one of her husband's. When a brother and sister, or father and daughter, are host and hostess, a married lady should leave the same cards as if she were calling on a husband and wife. A mother whose son lives at home may leave his cards when paying calls on acquaintances known to him. A widow living with her son, who is therefore in the position of host, should leave his cards in the same way as she would leave her husband's were he still living. When two ladies reside together, a card should be left for each.

A lady does not leave cards on a gentleman, with two exceptions—one being when an entertainment has been given by a bachelor in his own house, and the other in the case of a formal and official call upon an ambassador. A gentleman does not leave cards on a young unmarried lady living in her mother's house; but if a young lady acts as hostess to one of her male relatives, cards would be left on her as on a married lady.

Gentlemen are not expected to go out calling with their wives, though if it is desirable to be particularly complimentary the husband may accompany his wife. This is done more often in the country than in town. An unmarried man, when calling on a married couple, leaves two cards; when calling on a lady living with her father or brother, two cards; and when calling on a spinster lady, one card.

When paying a call, if the lady of the house is not at home, the caller may turn up one corner of her card, thereby signifying that the visit was made in person.

Leaving Cards on Special Occasions. — Cards should be left after formal entertainments, such as balls, dinners, at homes, luncheon parties, and weddings, whether the invitation is accepted or not, and it is etiquette to do so within a week or ten days of the entertainment. It is not necessary to leave cards after an informal luncheon or afternoon tea, though an unmarried

man who lunches with an acquaintance for the first time should call or leave cards soon after, to show that he appreciates the civility paid to him, and that he wishes to continue the acquaintance.

Cards of enquiry should be left in the case of an illness or death, and the words "to enquire" should be written at the top. It is usual for a lady to leave her card on another lady after an *accouchement*, but it would not be correct in this instance for a gentleman to leave his card. Cards of enquiry are returned by a call. If a death has taken place, it should be made when the deep mourning is over; or if after an illness, when the convalescent is able to resume her social duties.

It is considered incorrect to send cards by post, though in the country, after an illness or death, cards with the words "With thanks for kind enquiries" upon them, might be despatched by post to those friends living at a considerable distance. In London, those people who have a large acquaintance often send their men-servants to leave cards of enquiry, or in acknowledgment of invitations. It is also correct for persons coming up to London for a short time to leave cards on their friends, otherwise a long time might elapse before the presence of the new arrivals was known. Cards with the letters P.P.C. (*pour prendre congé*) are only left when the sender is leaving a town or a neighbourhood for good.

Etiquette for Bride after Marriage.—Some doubt seems to exist as to the proper procedure for a bride. She must not send out cards at the time of her wedding; nor is it correct for her to announce her home-coming after the honeymoon by giving an "At Home". She must wait for her friends and acquaintances to call upon her, and return their calls in due time. She will be wise if she arranges to be in during the afternoon for a week or two after she is settled in her new home, in order that she may make the acquaintance of friends of her husband's family. Tea should be offered between the hours of four and six, but it is not correct to hand wedding-cake.

Etiquette of Afternoon Calls. — It is well that every lady should understand the etiquette of afternoon visiting, and be able to instruct her servants if they appear deficient in the necessary knowledge. The hostess should, after luncheon, tell her servant whether she is "at home" to visitors or not. When they present themselves the servant should answer the bell promptly and open the door wide. If her mistress does not intend to receive callers, the servant should merely reply "Not at home" to the query "Is Mrs. Brown at home?" The caller will then hand in the cards, which the servant should take in her hand. If the caller is driving and has not a footman, the servant, if a man, must help her into the carriage, shut the door, and ask for the coachman's directions. In any case, the servant must stand by the open hall-door until the caller has moved some distance away. The words "Not at home" are merely a society formula, and do not necessarily mean that the lady of the house is out, but that she cannot receive visitors.

When the lady is at home, the servant should reply in the affirmative,

and step back to allow the visitor to pass into the hall. She should then shut the door and precede the visitor on the way to the drawing-room, pause outside the door and ask, "What name, if you please?" open the door wide, stand aside and announce the name distinctly. If after four o'clock, tea should be taken in; and when the bell rings she should wait in the hall to give the visitor her umbrella or cloak, open the door, and call a hansom if required.

A visitor should never be allowed to wait on the door-step. If there is any doubt as to the hostess's being in, the servant should say, "Will you come in, please, and I will enquire if my mistress is at home?" If she is not, the servant should return and say, "I find that my mistress is not at home".

It is most important that the servant should be polite and properly trained, for nothing gives a worse impression than ignorance or incivility.

INVITATIONS.

In the matter of invitations, as in all other social matters, there are certain hard and fast rules which must be observed, otherwise a reputation for ignorance of *les convenances* will result.

Invitations to formal entertainments should be printed on cards. The cards should be white, without ornamentation, and printed in copper-plate.

General Rules Regarding Invitations.—Formal invitations should not be given to a christening, a funeral, a luncheon party, or a small afternoon tea. In the case of impromptu or small informal parties, it is usual to write notes, or to send invitations written on visiting-cards. An invitation to a wedding may be printed on a small sheet of note-paper or on a card, but ornamentation of any kind is not in the best of taste. The name of the host appears on a wedding invitation, and also on a formal invitation to a dinner party; with these two exceptions only the name of the hostess appears.

When the host is a widower with a young daughter, all invitations are issued in the father's and the daughter's names, and the same rule is observed in the case of a brother and sister who live together. When the lady is of age to dispense with a chaperon, the invitations are despatched in her name.

One invitation suffices for husband, wife, and daughters, but separate invitations are given to the sons of a family. The words "and party" are added in the case of garden parties, country balls, and cricket matches. It is understood, however, that a lady bringing a party to a ball will secure an equal number of men and ladies, or perhaps one or two extra men.

Invitations should be answered at once. It is a moot point whether it is necessary to answer a printed invitation to an "At Home" unless the

letters R.S.V.P. appear upon it; but if the slightest doubt is felt it is wiser to send a reply. In smart London society considerable laxity is shown in the matter of answering invitations, but silence is not particularly polite, and by no means popular with hostesses.

Invitations to Balls.—An invitation to a ball should be in this form:—

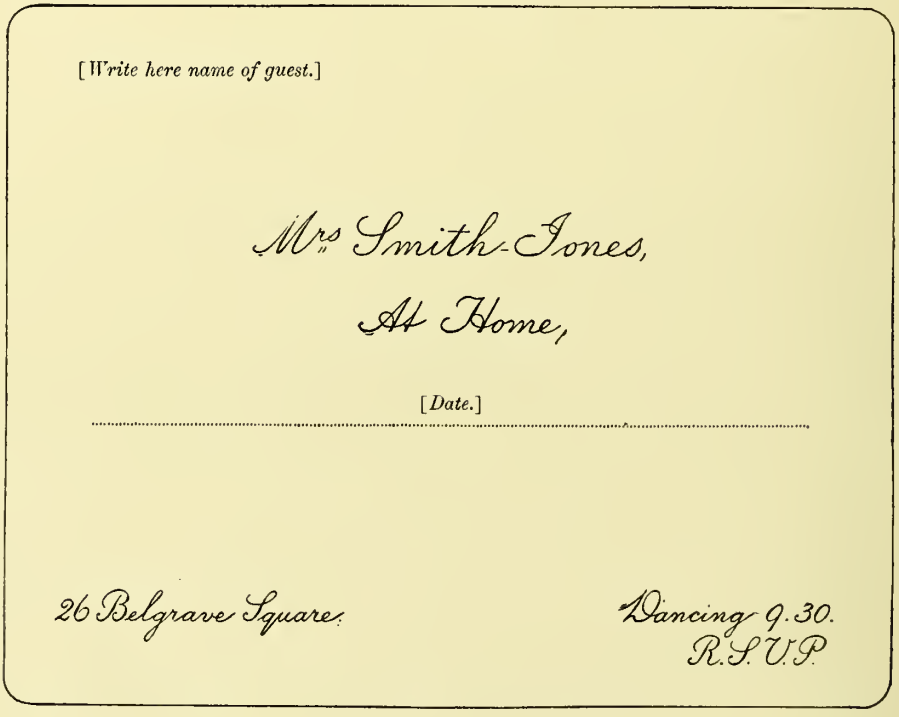


Fig. 486.

An acceptance to a ball invitation must be written on ordinary note-paper, and should be worded as follows:—

> *Mr., Mrs., and the Misses Jones accept with pleasure (or have much pleasure in accepting) Mrs. Smith's kind invitation for Tuesday, Nov. 16th.*

Invitations to At Homes.—An invitation to an "At Home" is printed in the same manner as that for a ball, but the word "dancing" is, of course, omitted. If a well-known professional entertainer has been engaged to perform, it is usual for the name to be printed or written in the right-hand bottom corner; should some other attraction, such as theatricals or palmistry, be provided, the fact would be notified in like manner. Invitations and acceptances to large afternoon parties are worded in precisely the same fashion as those to balls.

Wedding Invitations.—An invitation to a wedding should be worded thus:—

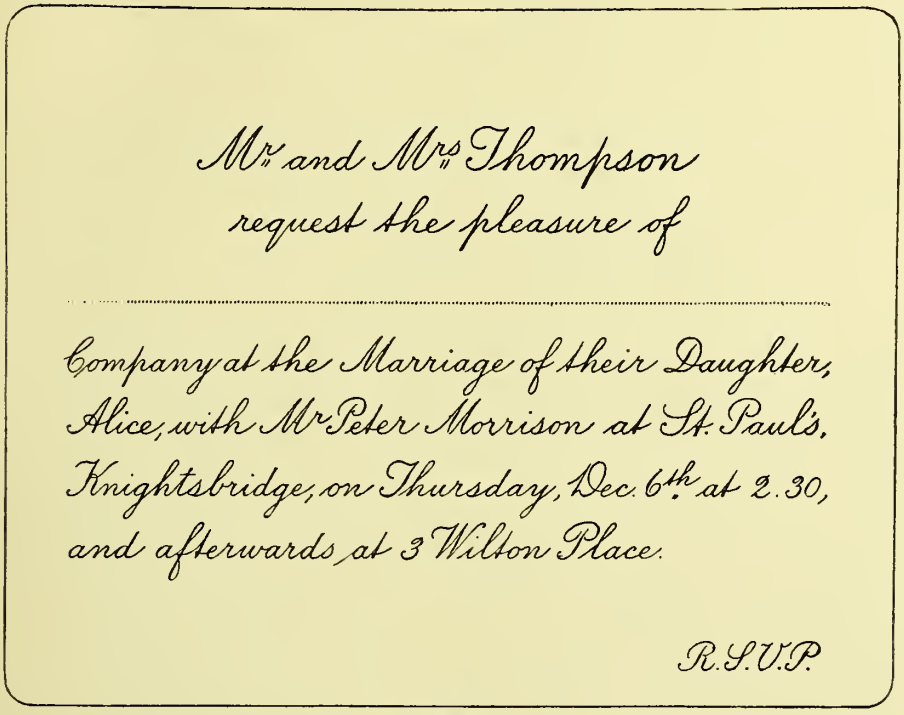


Fig. 487.

If the wedding takes place at an hotel, or at the house of a friend, the address to which the acceptances are to be sent should be printed in the left-hand bottom corner.

The correct form of acceptance to a wedding is as follows:—

Mr. and Mrs. ——— accept with pleasure Mr. and Mrs. Thompson's kind invitation to the wedding of their daughter with Mr. Peter Morrison, on Thursday, Dec. 6th.

When the bride has only one parent, the invitations must be sent out in his or her name, as:

Mr. Babington requests the pleasure, &c.

Or,

Lady Jenkins requests, &c.

Invitations to Dinner.—When a formal dinner party is given, the invitation may be printed on a card, or written on a sheet of note-paper, and runs as follows:—

Mr. and Mrs. Ellis James request the pleasure of Mr. and Mrs. ———'s company at dinner, on Wednesday, June 30th, at 8 o'clock.

Invitations to Afternoon Parties. — Invitations to tennis parties, garden parties, and afternoon "At Homes" are printed in the same manner as ball invitations. If the words "and party" are added, the invitation runs:—

Mr., Mrs., and the Misses Elliot-Smith and party, &c.

Such an invitation is accepted by a lady who intends to take her visitors to the entertainment in this fashion:—

Mr., Mrs., and the Misses Elliot-Smith and party have much pleasure in accepting, &c.

It is generally understood in the country that "and party" means visitors who are staying in the house.

Refusal of Invitations.—When refusing invitations, some polite excuse, such as a previous engagement, or absence from home, must be pleaded:

General and Mrs. Langley regret that absence from home prevents them from accepting Mrs. Smithson's kind invitation for July 8th.

Or,

General and Mrs. Langley regret that a previous engagement prevents them from accepting, &c.

Formal invitations couched in the third person should be answered in like manner. There are cases, however, when it may be necessary to make some explanation, and then it is often simpler to write a note in the first person. For example, Mr., Mrs., and Miss A. are invited to a ball by Lady B. Mr. and Mrs. A. will be away from home, but do not wish to deprive their daughter of the pleasure. They therefore arrange that she shall be chaperoned by another lady who is going to the ball, and the invitation is answered thus:—

Dear Lady B.,

I regret that we shall be away from home when your ball takes place, otherwise we should have had much pleasure in accepting your kind invitation. My daughter, however, will be at home, and will be delighted to accept it, as Mrs. ——— has kindly consented to chaperon her.

Believe me, Yours sincerely,

Angela A.

Informal Invitations.—Informal invitations are generally contained in written notes, though occasionally they are written on visiting-cards.

Invitations to teas and informal evening parties, and to small dances, are often sent in the latter way:

Capt. and Mrs. Cuttle.

Mrs. Thomas Jones
At Home
Wednesdays in November.

33 Queen Street. *Dancing, 9 to 11.*

The Misses Lancaster.

Lady Ffolett
At Home
Tuesday, Oct. 5th.

33 Green Street. *4 to 7.*

It is correct to reply to such invitations formally, or by a note.

For a small dinner, the note should run as follows:—

Dear Mrs. L.,

It will give us much pleasure if you and your husband will dine with us on Wednesday, Nov. 5th, at a quarter to eight.

Believe me, Yours sincerely,

Angela Blank.

Such an invitation should be replied to as follows:—

Dear Mrs. L.,

We shall have much pleasure in dining with you on Wednesday, Nov. 5th.

With kind regards,

Believe me, Yours sincerely,

Edith ———.

An invitation to a smaller tea party might be worded as follows:—

Dear Mrs. L.,

I am asking a few friends to tea on Saturday next, and shall be so pleased to see you and your daughter.

Yours sincerely,

Or, for an evening party:—

Dear Mrs. N.,

We are getting up a little impromptu dance on Tuesday, April the 5th, at 9 o'clock. I hope you are not already engaged, and that you will be able to bring your daughter.

Believe me, Yours, &c.,

Angela Brooklyn.

Such invitations are answered by notes. For instance:

Dear Mrs. ———,

We should much like to dine with you on Monday, but unfortunately we have some people coming to us, and I am afraid we must stay and entertain them.

Believe me, Yours, &c.,

When Invitations should be Issued.—The formality of an occasion may generally be estimated by the notice given. For a wedding, from a fortnight to three weeks should be allowed; for a large dinner, a fortnight; a small dinner, a week to ten days; a large evening party, three weeks; an informal party, a week; afternoon parties, from a week to a fortnight; impromptu parties, anything under four or five days. In the London season, invitations, especially to dinners, are sent out at even longer notice; but a long notice implies an important entertainment.

Usual Hours for Parties.—The generally-accepted hours for various entertainments are as follows:—Ball in town, 10.30 to 3. This is understood, and the hour is not always stated. Balls in the country, 9 or 9.30 to 4. Dances in London, 10.30 to 2. Here, too, the time is generally understood. Dances in the country, 9 or 9.30 to 2 or 3. Evening receptions in town, 10 or 10.30 to 12 or 1, and this being understood, the hours are not stated. Theatricals, 8.30, 9, 9.30, or 10 to 12 or 1. In this case the hour should be mentioned. Dinners, formal, 8, 8.15, 8.30; informal, 7.30 to 8. In the country it is not usual to dine after 8 o'clock. The hour is always stated. Tennis and garden parties, 3 or 4 to 6.30 or 7. Afternoon "At Homes", 4 or 4.30 to 6.30 or 7. The hours are generally stated.

THE ART OF ENTERTAINING.

General Hints to Host and Hostess.—Entertaining is a social art, and one which cannot be learnt in a day. A genuine desire to entertain, and not merely to perform a social duty, will go far to make a good hostess,

but experience and *savoir faire* are also required. When once the elementary rules of etiquette have been mastered, the would-be hostess must exercise her powers of observation, and learn from the parties given by her friends and acquaintances what to do and what to leave undone.

A hostess should be gracious without being gushing. No matter what *contretemps* may arise, she must be serene and smiling. When she has an absent or nervous manner, the guest receives the impression that his presence is undesired, or at all events not appreciated. She should learn to convey a welcome by a look, a hand-shake, and to express in a few well-chosen words her pleasure at seeing some particular person. To be successful she must be a student of character, and therefore able to judge which of her guests will fraternize. She should be sympathetic, able to feel for shy reserved folk and for the young men and maidens who are longing for an opportunity for uninterrupted converse; yet she should have sufficient worldly wisdom not to allow her feeling to run away with her, combining kindness with a just appreciation of social grades and responsibilities. She should cultivate the art of leading the conversation, and of effacing herself gracefully if she finds that her guests are engrossed in each other. She should also be careful, if she is a young woman, to pay due deference to her elderly guests, for courtesy acknowledges the precedence of age, although strict etiquette does not.

Introductions.—In the matter of introductions, the chief difficulty lies in knowing when, and when not, to introduce. The hostess should assure herself that an introduction will be welcome before making it. At large parties it is polite to introduce those people who do not seem to have friends with whom to converse. Such an introduction does not necessitate the continuance of the acquaintance. When two friends meet and talk in the presence of a third, it is courteous to include that person in the conversation; this can often be done without a formal introduction. It is unnecessary to make known to each other persons who are paying a call at the same time; in such a case circumstances must decide what is the best thing to do. If ladies living in the same neighbourhood are not acquainted, they should not be introduced unless they have been asked to meet each other for that purpose.

There are fixed rules as to the manner in which introductions should be made. A gentleman should be introduced to a lady, not a lady to a gentleman. The hostess should say, "May I introduce Mr. Jenkins to you, Mrs. Robinson?" or "Let me introduce Mr. Dash to you, Miss Blank", or "I do not think you know Captain Jones, Lady Grant". A lady of inferior rank should be introduced to a lady of superior position. When the social status is equal, an unmarried lady should be introduced to a married lady, and a young lady to an old lady. A gentleman is introduced to a gentleman in like manner. When a lady introduces her husband to a guest, she should say, "Mrs. L., may I introduce my husband to you?" A gentleman should introduce another gentleman to his wife by saying, "I want to introduce

you to my wife, L.", or, if a formal speech is needed, "Mr. L., may I introduce you to my wife?" A clever hostess, when effecting an introduction, will often start her guests on some topic of conversation; and if two persons are unacquainted with each other, but have many mutual friends, reference to this fact may be made.

The Duties of Sons and Daughters.—When there are grown-up sons and daughters, they must be their mother's aides-de-camp, and must on no account allow their own enjoyment to come before their duty. A girl does not, as a rule, introduce her seniors to each other, but she should, if her mother is giving a ball, be careful to see that the young guests are provided with partners. She should also be ready to talk pleasantly to anyone who is for the moment alone; and she should make known to her mother the fact that any lady has not been taken down to supper, and in every way second her mother in showing hospitality. Above all, the sons and daughters must be taught to pay deference to age and infirmity.

DINNERS.

As already stated, the dinner maintains its prestige as being the most exclusive and complimentary of all social functions. There are several kinds —the large dinner of twenty or thirty persons, which is generally more or less official; the formal dinner of ten to sixteen; and lastly, the little dinner of four to eight, which is generally the most popular of all.

Dinner Etiquette.—To ensure the success of a dinner, the guests must be carefully chosen. To send a learned old gentleman, with a craze for beetles, in to dinner with a young woman who can only chatter of the social events of the day, does not add to the reputation of the hostess, while to ask the Browns to meet their detested neighbours the Smiths is not likely to increase the liveliness of the occasion. Precedence is of great importance at a dinner party. The host heads the procession with the lady of highest rank, and she sits at his right hand. The gentleman of highest rank takes in his hostess and sits at her right hand. The remaining guests must be paired according to their rank. The only exceptions to this rule are when a near relation is of the highest rank, or when it is necessary to make some other arrangement in order that husband and wife may not sit next each other. When arranging a dinner party, relations who see each other every day should not be placed near each other.

It is the duty of the host to introduce to each lady the gentleman who is to take her down to dinner. Should they already know each other, he merely remarks, "Blank, will you take Mrs. D. in to dinner?" In order that no mistake shall be made, he should carry a little slip of paper on which are written the names of the pairs in their right precedence. After dinner the ladies leave the room in exactly the same order as they entered—the lady of highest rank first, the hostess bringing up the rear.

If a large and formal dinner party is given in a town, an awning is sometimes erected, but in any case, in damp and dirty weather, a carriage-roller should be provided. A roller consists of a long strip of matting nailed to a wooden roller at either end, and the price varies from 10s. 6*d.* upwards. A dinner of twelve or more persons is considered a formal party, and a formal invitation should be issued. The menu is more elaborate and more servants are required, but otherwise the etiquette is in every way the same as it is in the case of a small dinner.

Dinner Menus.—A detailed description is here given of the manner in which a dinner for eight persons should be arranged, with specimen menus for dinners for four to twenty persons. For other menus see Cookery, vol. ii.

1. *Menu for a Dinner of 16 to 20 persons—*

Olives farcies aux Anchois (Olives stuffed with Anchovy).
Consommé à la Colbert (Clear Soup à la Colbert).
Bisque d'Huîtres à la Royale (Bisque of Oysters à la Royale).
Éperlans Frits (Fried Smelts).
Turban de Poisson à la Moderne (Turban of Fish à la Moderne).
Crême de Volaille (Chicken Cream).
Filets de Bœuf au Sauce Raifort (Fillets of Beef, Horse-radish Sauce).
Quartier d'Agneau (Forequarter of Lamb).
Sorbet au Rhum (Rum Sorbet.)
Jambon aux Épinards (Ham with Spinach).
Crême aux Pralines (Burnt Almond Cream).
Croustades de Merluche Fumée (Haddock Croustades).
Glace au Café (Coffee Ice).

2. *Menu for a Dinner of 12 to 16 persons—*

Potage Tortue Claire (Clear Turtle).
Whitebait à la Diable (Devilled Whitebait).
Filets de Saumon (Fillets of Salmon).
Riz de Veau à la Crême (Sweetbreads).
Alouettes en Casserole (Casserole of Larks).
Selle de Mouton (Saddle of Mutton).
Faisan aux Truffes (Pheasant with Truffles).
Baba aux Fruits (Baba with Fruit).
Tartelettes d'Anchois (Anchovy Puffs).
Glace Vanille (Vanilla Ice).

3. *Menu for a Dinner of 8 to 12 persons—*

Caviar en Croûtes (Caviar on Toast).
Consommé aux Pâtes d'Italie (Clear Soup with Italian Paste).
Filets de Soles aux Fines Herbes (Fillets of Sole with Herbs).
Crême de Volaille en Aspic (Chicken Cream in Aspic).
Noisettes de Mouton aux Champignons (Fillets of Mutton with Mushrooms).
Aloyau de Bœuf braisé aux Huîtres (Braised Sirloin of Beef with Oysters).
Perdreaux Farcis (Stuffed Partridges).
Soufflé de Chocolat Glacé (Iced Chocolate Souffle).
Quenelles au Fromage (Cheese Quenelles).

4. *Menu for a Dinner of 6 or 8 persons—*

Bisque de Crevettes (Shrimp Purée).
Rougets en Caisses (Red Mullet in Cases).
Côtelettes d'Agneau aux Asperges (Lamb Cutlets with Asparagus).
Poulet Rôti (Roast Chicken).
Spaghetti à la Milanaise (Spaghetti, Milan fashion).
Fruits Frappés au Champagne (Fruit Salad with Champagne).
Croûtes à la Russe (Russian Croutons).

5. *A simple Menu for a Dinner of 6 or 8 persons—*

Purée d'Artichauts (Artichoke Soup).
Filets de Sole au Gratin (Filleted Sole au Gratin).
Mayonnaise de Volaille en Caisses (Chicken Mayonnaise in Cases).
Filet de Mouton à la Française (Loin of Mutton).
Chou de Mer. Sauce Beurre (Sea-kale with Butter Sauce).
Compôte de Poires (Stewed Pears).
Croûtes de Saumon (Salmon Croutons).

Arrangement of the Menu.—The menu is perhaps the most important item of a dinner party. With regard to the food, there are certain rules which it is well to remember. Give the best that you can afford, and choose a well-cooked, plain dinner, rather than a pretentious and ill-served one. Do not allow the bill of fare to be long; include in it one or two simple, wholesome dishes, in case some of the guests may possess delicate digestions; and impress upon the cook that the hot dishes must be, not warm, but hot, and the cold dishes cold, not tepid.

The order of a formal dinner, nowadays, is as follows:—Hors d'œuvres. Soup. Fish. Entrée. Joint. Sorbet. Game. Sweet. Savoury. Ice.

Dessert. The *hors d'œuvres* and the *sorbet* are often dispensed with. At dinners of less than twelve, an iced sweet is served instead of a sweet and an ice; at dinners of eight or ten, either the joint is omitted, or a joint is served and game is omitted.

There is at the present time a great tendency to shorten dinners as much as possible, and to be able to concoct a sufficiently substantial menu which will not take more than an hour to serve is an art. At the same time, the dishes must be varied. Two brown or two white meats should not follow each other, and the colour and flavouring of the sauces must also be varied. For example, if mushrooms are employed in the first entrée, they should not be used again, either as a vegetable or as part of the savoury. The appearance of the *plats* must be studied, and the garnishes varied; more important than all, the powers of the cook and of the servants who wait at dinner should be considered. It is manifestly impossible that a single-handed cook can send up an elaborate dinner composed entirely of dishes which have to be made, or even finished, at the last moment. When there are three or four trained pairs of hands in the kitchen, the dishing-up of the menu is simple, but in the case of a cook who, if not single-handed, has only a kitchen-maid or some less experienced person to help her, the bill of fare requires careful consideration. Nowadays, when cold entrées, sweets, and savouries are fashionable, the labours of the cook are lightened. Except in the height of summer, not more than two cold dishes should be served, though in hot weather a cold entrée, joint, sweet, and savoury are sometimes given. In winter it is permissible to serve a cold entrée, and a cold sweet.

It is understood that certain adjuncts are served with certain dishes. They are specified in the Cookery section in vol. ii. Vegetables, also, are served with entrées, joints, and game, but unless they form a component part of a dish—such as *jambon aux épinards*, or *filets de bœuf aux champignons*, for instance—they do not appear in the menu. Salads, which should be served with game and with cold meats, are taken for granted, and are not mentioned in the bill of fare.

As the details of entertaining are apt to puzzle the young hostess, it may prove useful to describe the exact manner in which a dinner should be served and arranged. The fifth menu has been carefully arranged so that it may be prepared by a plain cook single-handed, and served by a parlour-maid.

The guests selected, the invitations accepted, the hostess must arrange the order in which the guests are to go in to dinner, and where they are to sit at the table. Two days before the dinner party, the cook and parlour-maid should be acquainted with the fact that a dinner party is to take place on a certain day. The mistress and the cook should then arrange the menu, decide upon the quantities of materials required, and order them in good time. A duplicate menu should be given to the parlour-maid, and she should be instructed with regard to the wine. If she is not an experienced person it will be wise to provide her with a detailed menu, as follows:—

Wednesday, November 8th.

Dinner for 8 persons, at quarter to 8—

	Artichoke Purée.	(Serve from sideboard.)
(Serve Sherry with this Course.)	Fried Bread.	(Hand.)
	Fillets of Sole.	(Hand in Entrée dish.)
(Serve Champagne.)	Mayonnaise of Chicken.	(Hand.)
(Champagne.)	Joint.	(Carve on sideboard, and hand Vegetables and Jelly.)
	Red Currant Jelly.	
(Champagne and hand Sherry.)	Stewed Pears.	(Hand.)
	Salmon Croutons.	
	Cheese. Butter. Biscuits.	

Clear table, and lay for dessert.

Hand dessert and port, sherry, and claret, and then place wine and dishes on table. Clear sideboard, and leave the room.

Bring coffee and liqueurs, first to ladies in drawing-room, then to gentlemen in dining-room.

With written instructions such as these, the parlour-maid can scarcely make a mistake.

The Cook's Preparations.—The cook, if a methodical person, will perform her share of the work in this manner. In the morning the soup must be made and the croutons fried; they then only require to be warmed. The fillets of sole should be placed in the cases with the sauce. The mayonnaise of chicken may be finished off, dished up, and placed on ice in a cool larder, and the vegetables and joints prepared and put ready to be cooked. The right number of plates must be heated in the rack, and the dishes arranged on a side table. The cook can then rest for an hour or two in the afternoon, and at dinner-time she will be calm and collected, and able to dish up quickly and neatly.

What Wines to Serve at Dinner.—Few young housewives, when they begin to entertain, have any idea exactly how a dinner should be served, and what wines belong to what courses. They have, perhaps, been accustomed to the ways of a large house worked by trained servants, or of a small establishment and a small income which has not allowed of anything but the most simple living. It may be well to state, therefore, that at a formal dinner sherry is served with soup; hock or chablis with fish; champagne with entrées, and until the sweet; champagne and sherry with the sweet and savoury. At dessert the usual wines are sherry, port, claret, and champagne. Liqueurs are served with the sorbet and with the ice.

At smaller parties only sherry, and either claret, champagne, or some other light wine, are served at dinner, and sherry, port, and claret at dessert, liqueurs in this case being sometimes served with ice and with the coffee.

If the party is quite unceremonious, claret and sherry, and whisky and soda are sufficient.

Laying the Table.—It might at first sight be considered unnecessary to describe the laying of the table in detail, but anyone with experience of the average servant knows how extraordinarily ignorant of the niceties of service she can be. What is called a "cover" is laid for each person. This consists of a table-spoon for soup, fish knife and fork, two large knives, two large forks, and glasses for sherry, champagne, and hock. Extra spoons and forks are added as required. The dinner napkin should be folded simply and placed in the centre of the cover. It is quite wrong to put it in a wine-glass or to arrange it in a fanciful manner. The bread (usually a roll) is placed inside the dinner napkin. Four bread-straws, tied together with narrow ribbon, are often placed at the side of the cover, and rusk or dry toast is handed. At unceremonious dinners, neatly-cut pieces of bread are used instead of rolls.

Waiting at Table.—Dinners are generally served *à la Russe, i.e.* from the sideboard; occasionally, however, the host carves the joint and the game, and in old-fashioned households all the dishes are carved on the table. When the dinner is *à la Russe* the soup, fish, joint, and game are helped from the sideboard, the made dishes handed. The carving is done by the upper servant, and the wine is also handed by her. The under servant hands the plates, the upper the dishes. When the cheese course has been handed the table is cleared entirely, the under servant holding the tray and the upper removing the glasses, &c. The cloth is then brushed. The upper servant puts on the clean glasses and the wine, the other the plates and the dishes. When the sideboard is cleared, both leave the room. Coffee is brought to the ladies in the drawing-room, to the gentlemen in the dining-room.

When teaching servants how to wait at table, it should be impressed upon them that they must move quietly, take no notice of any conversation, and not speak audibly to each other.

When a dinner is being given, one servant should be ready to open the door and put down the carriage-roller, and another to point out where cloaks are to be removed and to announce the guests. At the appointed hour the soup should be brought in, and dinner announced. When the time arrives for the guests to leave, the servants should fetch their cloaks and wraps, put down the carriage-roller for them, and accompany them to their cabs or carriages.

TABLE DECORATION.

The custom of decking the dinner-table with flowers and foliage, fanciful glass, and dainty embroideries—even if the meal to be served is of the simplest—has become so general of late years that it is difficult to realize how comparatively modern is the art of floral decoration. The most fashionably-inclined of our grandmothers never aspired to anything

beyond a "massive" silver épergne crammed tightly with gaudy bunches of "choice exotics", chosen and arranged by the gardener, to whom hardy garden flowers were but common things, scarcely worth cutting, and the lovely spoils of field and hedgerow altogether beneath contempt.

Perhaps to-day there is a tendency to fall into the other extreme, and to overdo the decorating. Certainly when one is called upon to admire some masterpiece of the average professional florist—some "novel" arrangement of wired flowers twisted into all kinds of impossible positions, with leaves tortured into loops and bows—garnished with stuffed birds and sham butterflies, and served up with china stiles and bridges and owls with candles stuck in their heads, it is impossible not to think with regret of that simpler, if equally inartistic, épergne, with its squab bouquets nestling under silver palm-trees! The modern "shop" decoration can be very bad indeed, although the ingenuity displayed in the mechanical part of the work is often marvellous.

Background.—In planning a scheme of table-decoration, there are one or two points which should never be entirely overlooked, although to the novice they may appear unimportant. First, there is the question of background. The colour of walls and hangings, and even the general style of the furniture in the room, should be considered, otherwise the effect of the most ingeniously devised and perfectly executed arrangement may be quite spoilt by its colour and type clashing with what may be called its setting. Broadly speaking, it is tolerably safe to choose yellow as the key-note of a table-scheme in any room in which the general tone is not of bluish-pink or terra-cotta. Yellow and orange look specially well against blue, brown, and certain shades of green—not against sage or olive, however. The choice of red is always justified in a room which is hung with deep green or dark oak brown. Pale pink harmonizes nearly as well with a background of deep crimson as with one of pale apple-green or soft turquoise-blue.

Furthermore, the colour and design of the dinner and dessert services should not be disregarded. Although in these days, when nine people out of ten use plain white or ivory china with a neat monogram or crest as sole adornment, such a hint may seem superfluous, yet some hostesses are obliged to use family relics, heavy of hue and florid of pattern, which would completely "kill" delicate, pale-coloured decorations. Care must be taken to avoid such tones of colour as will not "light up" satisfactorily. Bright pinkish-mauve, for instance, is the only one among the myriad shades of purple which does not lose its brilliancy under artificial light, especially when gas or ordinary paraffin lamps are used. Very pale blue takes a very dingy, sickly hue at night, but a decided shade of turquoise stands the ordeal tolerably well. As greens have a very different appearance when seen by gas-light, spreads and ribbons of this colour should always be tested before they are used on the dinner-table. It is wise to adopt, if at all possible, schemes with which either pink, red, or yellow candle and lamp shades will accord, as they have by far the prettiest effect.

White is, of course, always admissible, but green, mauve, and blue shades are very trying to both gowns and complexions.

Choice of Flowers.—So much for colour; now to consider the flowers themselves. When the supply has to be obtained from a shop or a flower-girl's basket, it is useless to be hypercritical, but the buyer should be careful not to invest in flowers with discoloured stems, slimy, or split at the ends. If the centre-florets of such blossoms as ox-eye daisies, pyrethrums, and scabious are not fully opened out, and if the petals of tulips, narcissi, and the like have a transparent appearance round the edge, it is certain that the flowers are the reverse of fresh. It requires a quick eye to discover the clever "fakes" of the less respectable class of florist, the skewering of broken-off blossoms to stems contrived of fern-ribs and wire or twigs, the adroit devising of gorgeous bouquets out of mere shreds and patches of bloom and leaf, and the many other tricks of the trade; still a little observation will prevent the striking of many a bad bargain. But no flowers are so delightful to arrange as those the decorator cuts for herself—long-stemmed, with plenty of their own (or appropriate) foliage, and at just the right stage of development. They should be gathered early in the morning or late in the evening, never in the heat of the day; and before being arranged they should be put in roomy jars or basins of water and set aside in a shady and cool (but not icy-cold) place for at least a couple of hours. If cut at the joints they retain their freshness longer than if the incision is made at a point between them. Flowers that have been sent by post or rail should have the ends of their stems clipped off before they are put into slightly warmed water for their rest and drink.

Hints on Arranging.—As to the actual manipulation of the flowers themselves—the most important part of the whole business,—it is of little avail to write much, for the science of deft arrangement, of artistic blending, of hitting the happy medium between the painfully formal and the untidily careless, is one which cannot be taught in a whole volume. Yet the experienced decorator is full of "wrinkles" which help her to achieve results that are admirable, even if she has not much art in her soul. The "old hand" knows that judiciously chosen twigs of such bushy shrubs as holly, box, and privet, dropped into deep, wide-mouthed jars or bowls, always difficult to treat successfully, help to steady and keep in position long-stalked blossoms, and she has learnt when to use wet sand or moss as a substitute for water, although she never falls into the novice's mistake of filling a valuable porcelain bowl—perhaps a choice bit of "old blue"—with sand without a covering of oil-skin, or an inner basin of wood or tin, to prevent the grit from scratching the glaze of the ware. With regard to those clusters and wreaths of flowers which fashion at present ordains shall be laid on the cloth, there is the knack of keeping them fresh through the many courses of a smart dinner by packing wet moss adroitly about the stems, and covering it with green oil-silk. The expert, too, generally knows many cunning ways of pressing autumn leaves and ironing them with a bees'-waxed iron, and of varnishing and otherwise preserving all sorts of

berries and seed-pods, so that they may be used to eke out the winter's scanty supply of decorative material.

Suitable Receptacles.—There are, of course, fashions in receptacles for flowers, as in everything else, but unless a very great variety of arrangements is desired, most of the "novelties" appearing in the shops each year can be passed over. If a house-mistress possesses a set of Salviati or Murano vases—the simpler designs in preference to the more elaborate,—another of the beautiful Whitefriars glass, a few bowls and oval dishes of Coalport china, and an assortment of picturesque baskets, she may consider herself well equipped. Old-fashioned champagne glasses, whether cut or engraved, are charming for tall slender-stemmed flowers and ferns, and finger-bowls serve perfectly for roses, while among the cheaper kinds of modern glass the green Nuremberg has some artistic value. Modern Delft pottery goes well with a rather formal style of decoration—red and white tulips, a centre-spread of blue-and-white embroidered linen, and brass candlesticks. The pale blue-and-white Copenhagen porcelain is very delicate and charming, while the cheap bright green Belgian ware, and that of deeper tint which comes from Farnham in Surrey, are both effective in their way. Many kinds of picturesque baskets, other than the hackneyed, if graceful, Louis XVI. shape, which alone appeals to the professional florist, may be used for flowers. The smallest-sized Sussex "trug", for example, stained brown or green, or even silver-painted, and filled with roses or carnations and mignonette, or with autumnal-tinted leaves and berries, makes a pretty centre-piece. The markets of many country towns, especially those of North Devon, are splendid fields for the discovery of quaint, uncommon rustic shapes.

There are many sorts of foreign baskets which can be impressed into the decorator's service, notably the oblong baskets of coarse green and cream rush which come from Japan. Wooden porridge-bowls, stained or painted, bowls of scarlet Japanese lacquer, bowls and lotahs of copper or brass, wicker barrows and bark canoes,—all these may be used as flower-holders, as well as the silver receptacles in which only a few can afford to indulge.

Before entirely quitting the subject, it may be well to hint that when the flowers are set out in very cheap and homely pots and pans, it is not in completely irreproachable taste to use smart silver dishes for bon-bons, salted almonds, &c. It is far better to choose tiny saucers or trays matching the flower-vases if possible; if baskets replace the latter, duplicates on a very small scale, lined with little ruched mats of chiffon, silk, or crêpe-paper, can be used with distinct advantage.

Centre-spreads.—In a book which is intended to be of more than ephemeral value, it is scarcely advisable to enter into elaborate descriptions of the centre-spreads, menu-cards, and other decorative accessories which happen to be the fashion of the moment. It is enough to say that a piece of embroidery really good, both as to design and colour, whether ancient or modern, Oriental or European, may always be fittingly used as a back-

ground for floral decoration, no matter what the special fad or fancy of the day may be, provided, of course, that it is in harmony with the other things on the table.

Again, if the dining-table happens to be a handsome one of polished oak or mahogany, it is always permissible to substitute narrow side and end slips of linen or fine damask for the more commonplace all-over table-cloth. These linen "runners" must, of course, be made beautiful in some way or other, either by means of embroidery on the material itself, with insertions of thick flax-lace, bands of china-work, or with a blending of the three.

A plan which may be mentioned for the special benefit of the economically-minded, is to have a centre-spread of rich white or ivory brocade worked with white silk, gold or silver thread, and spangles, but without any colour. It should be provided with two or three sets of detachable double-frills of chiffon, soft silk, gauze, or Liberty muslin, gathered to narrow tapes, so that, when wanted, they may be pinned or tacked under the edge of the brocade. Pale lemon-yellow, deep orange, and pink are three good shades to choose for these trimmings, and each set should have candle-shades to match it.

Menu-cards.—Menu-cards should not be fantastic or bizarre, and if placed in silver or silver-gilt holders, they can hardly be too severely plain. With certain classes of decorative schemes, however, some departure from this rule is allowable, arrangements in Japanese or Louis XVI. style, for instance, necessitating specially-designed and more or less fanciful menu-tablets. The fashion of inscribing *à propos* quotations on the cards has at least this in its favour—it affords a subject of conversation.

Floral Schemes.—Appended is a list of suggested schemes for table-decoration arranged to suit the different months of the year. For the most part they are not intended to be more than mere indications of colour and flower combinations which have been proved to be effective, but in a few instances the details have been more fully filled in. Some are more elaborate and more expensive than others, in order to suit different incomes.

JANUARY.

1. Centre-spread of scarlet brocade. In the middle a basket of silvered rush filled with leafless twigs and small branches that have been brushed with gum-water and dipped in frosting powder, and sprays of holly and scarlet Van Thol tulips. Cornucopias of silvered rush with flowers and frosted foliage at the corners of the brocade. Silver candlesticks with shades of white silver-spotted gauze.

2. A white scheme. Spread of white chiffon puffed over white satin; frosted foliage and white chrysanthemums in white china bowls of various sizes; white china candlesticks with white shades. Suitable when the dinner-service is very brightly coloured.

3. Christmas roses in silver (or silvered Benares brass) bowls. Clusters of holly and ivy laid on cloth and connected by scarves of soft red gauze. Red shades.

FEBRUARY.

1. Centre-spread of either pale pink brocade or white Liberty satin embroidered in pink; tall clear glass trumpet vase holding pink tulips in the middle; smaller ones near the corners; and, between them, glass bowls filled with violets of every shade of mauve and purple. Silver candlesticks with pink tulip-shaped shades.

2. Scarlet poinsettias in baskets of bright green rush. Trails of asparagus fern laid on the cloth between them. Scarlet shades.

3. Red and white tulips planted stiffly in Delft jars. Dutch brass candlesticks. Spread of white linen embroidered in blue and white. "Dutch tile" menu-cards.

MARCH.

1. Centre-spread of scarlet embroidery; sprays of flowering blackthorn fixed with Japanese leaden holders in bronze jars and bowls. Lamps fitted into bronze jars; shades of painted (Japanese) gauze; bon-bons in tiny bronze trays or bowls of scarlet lacquer.

2. Pink almond blossoms in turquoise blue jars set on pink gauze spread, crossed with trails of brown ivy.

3. Pink anemones, brown ivy sprays in iridescent glass vases.

APRIL.

1. Spread of pale green linen-plush, satin-sheeting, or linen. Brown rush baskets and shaded browny-green pottery jugs with primroses and catkins. Pottery candlesticks; primrose shades.

2. Daffodils in green and gold Venetian glass vases; clusters of daffodils, tied with pale green gauze ribbon, laid on cloth. Daffodil shades.

3. Clusters of pear-blossom in turquoise-blue bowls, or in brown wicker baskets trimmed with deep yellow gauze.

4. Clusters of pear-blossom, tied with yellow ribbons, laid on cloth. Copper jars of daffodils, between small lamps with yellow shades, fitted into copper lotahs.

MAY.

1. Maypole decoration. Miniature maypole (gilt) fixed in bowl of wet sand in the centre of table. Yellow and white ribbons attached to top of pole and brought down to the table, a small glass vase being placed on the end of each. Pole and streamers wreathed with "mother o' thousands", Japanese honeysuckle, and gypsophila. Yellow and white tulips, or Spanish iris, and ferns round base of pole and in vases.

2. Apple-blossom in bowls of green Belgian ware or in silver-painted sabots, connected by pink ribbons, laid on cloth. Candle-shades of gauze shaded from white to deep pink.

3. Purple lilac in silver, or old-fashioned cut-glass bowls, and purple and mauve iris in vases either of cut glass, or of pierced silver with glass-linings. Pink tulips can replace the iris.

4. Spread of white linen and lace over yellow satin. Yellow iris, white gladioli, and mimosa in white vases and bowls. Yellow (iris-blossom shaped) shades to candles or electric lights.

5. Mimosa, deep yellow tulips, pale yellow azaleas, and brown foliage in large repoussé copper bowls. Copper lamps; deep yellow shades.

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2. JUNE. 3, OCTOBER. 4, CHRISTMAS.

JUNE.

1. Spread of white satin embroidered with turquoise-blue and silver. High-handled Louis XVI. baskets of silvered rush, trimmed with blue ribbons and filled with pink and crimson roses. Between the baskets, small clear glass bowls of pink and white sweet peas. Silver candelabra with shaded pink to crimson shades. Silver-edged menu-cards with blue love-knots in corners.

2. Salmon roses and brown foliage in gold-flecked Venetian glass bowls and vases. Salmon shades.

3. White carnations, pink roses, brown foliage, and ferns in white Coalport baskets. Clusters of the same flowers tied with deep crimson ribbons on the cloth.

JULY.

1. Spread of silver-spotted gauze over pale green satin. Shallow glass bowls with water-lilies floating in them, at the corners. Centre vase filled with flowering rushes, forget-me-nots, and meadow-sweet. Smaller vases here and there. Palest pink shades.

2. Deep orange poppies, paler yellow horned columbine or St. John's wort, grasses, ferns, and honeysuckle—in a series of rustic baskets connected by swinging festoons of Japanese honeysuckle and wild clematis. Small vases of poppies and grasses between.

3. At corners, crescent wreaths of nasturtiums of every shade of yellow and tawny-red. Wreath in the centre surrounding green Nuremberg glass vase of eschscholtzias or gaillardias, brown beech leaves and grasses.

AUGUST.

1. Centre-spread of green, mauve, and silver brocade; round silvered basket with high double crossed handles in the middle. Basket wreathed with trails of hops, vine leaves, and green outdoor grapes, and filled with purple violas, scabious, or pyrethrums. Trails of hops laid from centre-basket to smaller ones at corners. Silver vases of purple flowers between. Candle screens of silvered chiffon.

2. Down centre a narrow strip of pale green silk, bordered with leaves of every shade of green and brown set in a foundation of damp moss laid over oil-silk. Green pottery receptacles—odd shapes if possible—filled with ferns and leaves; green pottery candlesticks with shades of pink or red gauze, or small screens of pressed leaves mounted in talc. Scheme more suitable for luncheon than dinner. Turquoise-blue ware may be used with good effect instead of the green.

3. Scarlet geraniums, white Japanese anemones, mignonette, purple beet-leaves, brown carrot-tops. White or clear glass vases. Knots of scarlet gauze connecting trails of Virginian creeper and Japanese honeysuckle laid on cloth. Scarlet shades. (See Frontispiece.)

4. Blue sea-holly and yellow sweet sultan, coreopsis or small perennial sunflowers. Or blue holly and pink asters or carnations.

SEPTEMBER.

1. Spread of grey brocade worked up with grey silks and dull silver thread. Small sunflowers (lemon and orange) and brown fuchsia foliage in aluminium vases. Yellow and brown fruit—bananas, plums, apples, pears, nuts, &c.—in aluminium dishes. Aluminium lamps with orange shades. Grey menu-booklets tied with lemon and orange baby-ribbon.

2. Flat star of shaded autumn leaves in centre of table surrounding tall trumpet vase of greeny-gold Clutha glass filled with trails of briony and wild clematis, russet bracken fronds, and sprays of scarlet berries.

3. Scarlet single dahlias, white *Pyrethrum uliginosum*, and carrot-tops in miniature barrows made of brown twigs. Between the barrows, brown ware jugs with sprays of blackberry leaves and bunches of dog-wood or guelder-rose berries.

OCTOBER.

1. Centre of table latticed with sprays of autumnal-tinted leaves of every shade of russet and crimson. Copper bowls filled with purple heather down the middle of the lattice-work. Copper lamps with shades of deep yellow gauze wreathed with shaded leaves.

2. Pale pinkish-mauve chrysanthemums and sprays of reddish oak leaves tied with deeper purple ribbon and laid on spread of shaded mauve chiffon. A pretty luncheon decoration.

3. Deep tawny-yellow chrysanthemums, sprays of the pale yellow-green fading leaves of the Spanish chestnut; trails of Virginia creeper in bowls of carved oak (tin-lined) or miniature pitchers of shaded blue and brown Devonshire ware.

NOVEMBER.

1. Yellow brocade or silk spread. At each corner a flat heart-shaped wreath of berberis leaves, across which is laid a cluster of yellow and red-brown chrysanthemums. Gondola or canoe of gilt basket-work in centre filled with chrysanthemums and leaves. Gilt candlesticks; chrysanthemum shades.

2. Pale green spread. Covered silver setting. Tinted prepared sea-weed in shades of pink in white shell-shaped china receptacles. Sea-weed shades. Shell-shaped menu-tablets. (Suitable when flowers are scarce.)

3. Scarves of scarlet gauze twisted serpentine fashion down the table. Skeletonized leaves, honesty-pods, sprays of scarlet hips or Cape-gooseberry in white enamelled baskets, trimmed with white and scarlet gauze. Scarlet shades.

DECEMBER.

1. Spread of white gauze over satin, much puffed and frilled, edged with ivy trails, holly, and white chrysanthemums. Imitation Yule-log in centre filled with flowers and foliage.

2. Star made of closely-massed Christmas roses edged with ferns and ivy in centre, with tiny fir-tree thickly frosted rising from the middle, or a tall clear glass vase of frosted mistletoe and holly sprays. Silver candlesticks with silvered gauze shades.

3. Bright yellow spread. Christmas roses or white Roman hyacinths in tall vases of gold and white glass; yellow-berried holly in low bowls of the same. Yellow shades.

EVENING RECEPTIONS.

Evening receptions and At Homes, though less expensive than balls or dances, are, if well arranged, enjoyable, and give a hostess of moderate means an opportunity of showing hospitality to a large number of persons.

Invitations to such parties are conveyed on printed cards, on visiting-cards, by notes, and in some cases by word of mouth.

Evening At Homes may be divided roughly into two classes: the large and formal party, where some professional entertainment is provided, and an elaborate supper is given; or the smaller and less formal gathering, when the guests amuse themselves with conversation, and only light refreshments are offered. In London and other towns some hostesses arrange to be at home one evening in each week for a certain period—from 9.30 to 11.30 or 12—and in such a case the entertainment is not expected to be of an elaborate description.

A Formal Evening Party.—For formal parties an awning should be erected, and a man-servant or commissionaire should be in readiness to open the doors of carriages and cabs, and to call cabs at the end of the evening. One servant should be told off to open the door, and two more to attend to the cloak rooms. Tea and coffee should be served on arrival, before the guests proceed to the drawing-room. The hostess should stand at the head of the stairs, or inside just at the drawing-room door. The guests talk, and are amused at intervals by professional entertainers. Good music, a short play, or fortune-telling are in favour at present. At about 11 o'clock supper is served. A menu such as the following is suitable:—

Menu of a Supper for 50 to 200 persons—

Consommé au Profiteroles.
Mayonnaise de Saumon (Salmon Mayonnaise).
Petites Bouchées aux Huîtres (Oyster Patties).
Crêmes d'Homard (Lobster Creams).
Côtelettes de Volaille en Aspic (Chicken Cutlets in Aspic).
Foie gras en Aspic (Foie gras in Aspic).
Chaudfroid de Cailles (Chaudfroid of Quails).
Galantine (Galantine). Bœuf Épicé (Spiced Beef).
Pâté de Pigeon (Pigeon Pie).
Poulets Farcis (Stuffed Chicken).
Gelée Marasquin. Nougats à la Chantilly.
Pâtisseries. Macedoine de Fruits.
Bavarois Pistache.

At a supper such as this small tables should be arranged, and laid with a plate, two knives, two forks and a spoon, a roll, and two glasses to each person. There should be a menu and a vase of flowers on each table. To serve such a supper well, one waiter to every six persons is required. The dishes are placed on a buffet in a convenient position, which is in charge of two or more reliable servants.

A Spoon-and-Fork Supper.—Sometimes it is more convenient to give a spoon-and-fork supper, and then, as the name implies, the dishes must be

such as can be eaten without the help of a knife. If space can be allowed for small tables, so much the better; if not, the viands are arranged on a long buffet, and chairs are placed round the room. The guests partake of the refreshments either sitting or standing, and the gentlemen wait on the ladies.

A Convenient Buffet.—When it is impossible, or difficult, for the servants to remove dirty glass from the room, a buffet consisting of a long narrow table with two shelves underneath should be employed. On the upper of these a stock of clean crockery, glasses, spoons, and forks should be methodically arranged; on the lower, the dirty crockery should be stowed away. If there is space for a table (on which stand a large pail of water, a kettle, and spirit-lamp) to be screened off at the back of the buffet, a servant can be employed to wash up, thus making it feasible to manage with a smaller stock of crockery, &c., than would otherwise suffice.

When a two- or three-tier buffet cannot be procured, large wooden packing-cases might be placed under the tables, and the spare cups and saucers stored in them. If glasses are hired they are packed in wicker trays, and should be kept in these until required. When a large supply of tea and coffee is needed, urns should be hired; for a small party tea can be made as required by the help of a spirit-kettle, and the coffee may be kept hot in a large pan over another spirit-lamp. Ices should be packed in proper ice-pails; but iced coffee can be placed in a jug, the jug placed in a pail and surrounded with crushed ice.

At a party where the gentlemen are expected to wait on the ladies it is wise to place a sideboard or what-not in a convenient position. On it should be a stock of china, glasses, &c., and a space should be left for dirty plates. A servant should be instructed to see that these are removed and clean crockery substituted.

Menu for a Spoon-and-Fork Supper for 30 to 200 persons—

Consommé Julienne (Julian Soup).
Mayonnaise d'Homard (Lobster Mayonnaise).
Petites Bouchées aux Huîtres (Oyster Patties).
Crêmes de Volaille (Chicken Creams).
Crêmes de Jambon en Aspie (Ham Creams in Aspic).
Salade Nuremburg (Nuremburg Salad).
Torpedoes.
Côtelettes de Lapin en Chaudfroid (Rabbit Cutlets Chaudfroid).
Sandwich Assortis (Assorted Sandwiches).
Chocolat Bavarois (Bavarian Chocolate).
Gelée de Fruits (Fruit Jelly).
Chartreuse d'Oranges (Orange Chartreuse).
Éclairs au Café (Coffee Eclairs).
Meringues.
Compôte de Fruit. Petits Fours.

AFTERNOON AT HOMES AND TEAS.

Afternoon At Homes are an inexpensive form of entertainment much in vogue with those ladies who have a large acquaintance and a small income. They vary from a party of 50 to 100 or 200 people.

Afternoon Receptions.—When an At Home attains the latter proportions it is dignified by the title of a reception, and should be arranged in fact in the same manner as an evening reception. An awning is erected, a cloak-room is necessary, and good music or some other entertainment is provided. The refreshments are of an elaborate character, and the invitations are sent out in the form of printed cards.

Afternoon At Homes.—For smaller teas a note or verbal invitation is sufficient. Should the hostess intend to give a series of At Homes (Thursdays in December, or Mondays until Easter, for instance), the fact is generally notified on the visiting-card, as has been explained in the section of this article which deals with invitations. When a large party is given, the hostess receives her guests at the head of the staircase or just by the drawing-room door, while at a smaller party she welcomes her friends in the drawing-room.

Menu for Afternoon At Home.—The following menu shows the kind of refreshments which are provided at an afternoon reception:—

Menu for At Home, 50 to 200 people—

Tea. Coffee.
Savoury Sandwiches.
Cakes. Bread and Butter.
Petits Fours. Bon-bons. Ices.
Fruit.
Champagne Cup. Claret Cup. Lemonade.

In summer-time Iced Coffee is given, and proves popular.

The savoury sandwiches are very small and cut in various shapes; sometimes tiny fingers and rolls of fancy bread are used. When strawberries are in season they are generally a feature, or if fresh fruit is dear and scarce, a compôte of fruit sometimes takes its place. The floral decorations are elaborate, both on the tea-tables and in the reception rooms.

Refreshments at Small Parties.—At smaller parties the ices and champagne cup are dispensed with, otherwise the refreshments are much the same. The hints which are given as to the arrangement of the buffet in the section which treats of evening parties are equally applicable to the arrangement of afternoon parties.

When the guests do not number more than a dozen or so, it is usual to serve tea in the drawing-room, in which case the hostess or one of her daughters pours out tea, and the gentlemen or young girls of the party assist in handing the eatables. Tea and coffee—or for a change chocolate,—

bread and butter, savoury sandwiches, and cakes are provided. The visitors at these informal little teas leave their cloaks in the hall.

Waiters and Waitresses.—Before quitting the subject of party-giving, it may be wise to say a word or two on the question of hired assistance.

When the household is small and the servants are women, it is wiser when possible to engage the services of a waitress. For example, a dinner party of 10 or 12 persons is to be given, and only two women-servants are available for the upstair work. One more is needed, and it looks far better if this third servant is a woman, dressed in the same uniform of black dress, white cap, apron, collar, and cuffs. At small afternoon parties one or two extra women-servants are generally all that are required. When a large party of any kind is given, and the servants of the house are not sufficiently experienced to take command of the arrangements, it is wiser to entrust the whole matter to professionals. In engaging waiters care should be taken to procure honest and sober men of good appearance, who are accustomed to the ways of a gentleman's house.

LUNCHEONS.

Etiquette of Luncheons.—There are several kinds of luncheons, but in all cases the meal is, or ought to be, more or less informal. Formal luncheon parties by long invitation are no longer fashionable, though they are sometimes given. The luncheon of to-day generally takes place in London at 1.30, 1.45, or 2 o'clock; in the country, 1 or 1.30 is the usual hour. It is not necessary that the number of ladies and gentlemen should be equal, and precedence is not of such great importance as at a dinner. When luncheon is announced the hostess turns to the lady of highest rank and says, "Shall we go down to luncheon?", and that lady leads the way, the other guests following in what order they please. They naturally seat themselves according to precedence. When there are children of an age to have their meals downstairs, they and the governess are generally present. Invitations to luncheon should be given by note or by word of mouth.

Luncheon Menus.—As regards the bill of fare, a pleasing variety is shown. For a luncheon party the following menu is suitable:—

Menu of Luncheon for 10 to 18 persons—

Green Pea Purée.
Fillets of Sole in Aspic.
Mutton Cutlets and Spinach. Roast Chicken.
Caramel Pudding.
Gooseberry Tart. Cheese Soufflés.
DESSERT.
Coffee. Liqueurs.
Cold Meats on Sideboard.

Often, however, soup is omitted, and the menu runs as follows:—

Menu for Luncheon Party—

Macaroni au Jus.
Curried Prawns and Rice.
Casserole of Rabbit.
Cold Pressed Beef. Salad.
Jelly. Cheese Cakes.
Cheese. Biscuits. Butter.
Coffee. Liqueurs.

At an informal luncheon to which the guests have been invited by word of mouth, and at short notice, a menu such as this might be given:—

Menu of Informal Luncheon for 2 to 10 persons—

Croquettes. Roast Pheasant.
Cold Beef. Salad.
Sponge Pudding. Chocolate Custard.
Cheese. Biscuits. Butter.
Cake. Fruit.
Coffee.

When there are children, a joint and a plain pudding are generally provided.

Menu of Luncheon for 2 to 10 persons—

Eggs au Gratin.
Roast Mutton. Cold Veal and Ham Pie.
Plain Pudding. Fruit Meringue.
Cheese. Cake.
Coffee. Fruit.

The Service of Luncheons.—The method of serving luncheons varies almost as much as the style of the menu. When a menu such as the first is chosen, it should be served in exactly the same manner as a dinner *à la Russe*. The second menu might be served in precisely the same way, or the sweets, biscuits and butter, fruit, and cake placed on the table, and only the first four dishes served *à la Russe*. Clean plates should then be handed, and the servants should leave the room. In the case of the third menu, all the viands might be placed on the table and carved by host and hostess, the plates and the vegetables being handed by the servants. The table would not be cleared for dessert, fruit plates being merely substituted for the cheese plates. Occasionally dessert is omitted, and only some little dishes of devilled almonds and bon-bons remain on the table throughout the meal.

Wines.—For a luncheon party, hock, saumur, or claret, with sherry and port, but not champagne, should be given. At an informal lunch, Burgundy or claret, sherry, or whisky and soda or lemon-squash for those people who prefer it, is sufficient. Lemonade, soda-water, and water should be in readiness, for many people do not take wine, especially at this meal.

Coffee should always make its appearance, but it is not necessary to give liqueurs. The coffee may be served at dessert, or in the drawing-room.

Decorations.—The table decorations should be simple. Table centres are not often used, and menus and name-cards are dispensed with.

SUPPER PARTIES.

The hostess whose establishment does not allow of dinner parties is often glad to offer hospitality to more or less intimate friends in the form of an invitation to supper. Such a repast is easily managed by one servant, and may be prepared on the previous day. In summer it may consist of cold dishes, but in winter hot soup, potatoes, and perhaps one other hot dish, are usually provided. The hour for supper is 7.30 or 8.

The Service of Suppers.—Suppers, like luncheons, may be served in several ways. Service *à la Russe* is generally chosen, but when the meal is less formal the sweets and savouries are placed upon the table, the soup and cold meats on the sideboard. The servant hands the soup and the wine, changes the plates, and then leaves the room; or if the dishes are placed on the table, she remains to hand the plates. Table centres are often used, and the flowers are more or less elaborate, according to the purse and taste of the hostess. Menus may be provided. Dessert is sometimes given, and coffee always. Liqueurs are a matter of choice.

Supper Menus.—A bill of fare such as the following is suitable for a supper party of 8 to 12 persons:—

Menu of Supper Party for 8 to 12 persons—

(Hot.) Consommé Pâte d'Italie.

Crême de Saumon en Aspic.

(Hot.) Côtelettes d'Agneau.

Poulet Farci. Bœuf Épicé.

Pouding d'Orléans.

Petites Crêmes d'Anchois.

DESSERT.

Café. Liqueurs.

Another and less elaborate bill of fare might consist of:—

Menu for Supper, 8 persons—

Tomato Soup.
Mayonnaise of Salmon. Torpedoes.
Cold Beef. Salad.
Parfait of Chocolate. Pears in Syrup.
Stuffed Eggs.

Dessert.
Coffee.

For an intimate little party of 6 a smaller menu might suffice:—

Menu of Supper for 6 persons—

Ox-tail Soup. Prawns in Aspic.
Cold Beef. Baked Potatoes. Salad.
Cherry Tart and Cream.
Camembert Cheese. Biscuits. Butter.
Bon-bons. Coffee.

Wines.—At a supper party the wines usually offered are sherry, champagne, and port; but when a few friends are invited, sherry and claret suffice.

Such matters as these must naturally be decided by the income of the host and hostess. It would be absurd for a young couple with a small income to give champagne or any other expensive wine, and no sensible person would expect them to do so.

There is no doubt, however, that luncheons, suppers, and afternoon teas are the best entertainments for a young housewife of moderate income to attempt, for these meals are not necessarily expensive, and inexperienced servants are less likely to make blunders when serving them.

GARDEN PARTIES.

Persons with small incomes find garden parties cost far less and give much more pleasure than any other form of entertainment. The best time is from May to the early part of September; afterwards the days are short, the grass is damp, and in the country shooting interferes. A date should not be fixed until the weather—a great factor in all out-of-door entertainments—looks settled. If it rains, only a few people come, and it is difficult to amuse them in a small house.

Invitations.—To allow for disappointments, a greater number should be invited than are expected to be present, and it is wise to issue invitations a fortnight in advance. A list of the guests should be made, and a mark put against those who accept, so as to ascertain how many to provide for. Notes or cards can be written, the latter with "At Home" printed on being most convenient. A card should be in this form:

[*Write here name of guest.*]

Mrs Smith,

At Home,

[*Date.*]

4.30 - 7.30 p.m.

Ash Grove.

[*Lawn-tennis, Croquet, or other amusement may be mentioned here.*]

R.S.V.P.

Fig. 488

Time is optional.

Dress.—Ladies who intend playing lawn-tennis should wear suitable dresses; gentlemen, flannels. In London, frock-coats and tall hats are worn.

The maids in attendance on the tea-table should wear neat black dresses, large white muslin aprons, pretty caps, and nice shoes.

Reception.—The hostess receives on the lawn, close to where the guests arrive. She must be well *en evidence*, and remain on the same spot till all have assembled. Strangers should be introduced to friends standing by, the younger being named first, or the one of lower position. At the same time, persons living in the same neighbourhood should not be introduced. Unless there is evidence to the contrary, the presumption is that, if they do not know one another, they do not wish to. The chief or eldest guest is offered tea before the others.

Refreshments.—Tea should be, if possible, out of doors, and should begin about half an hour after the guests arrive. The table (or two tables

placed close together) should be covered with a spotlessly clean cloth, and should have small low vases of flowers—high ones are apt to be upset—placed down the centre. The flowers look best when they are all of one kind; at any rate, the colours should harmonize well. (Several useful hints may be found under "Table Decoration", p. 251.) Two or three little tables dotted about are convenient to rest cups on. The tea and coffee equipage should be at the back, with cups and saucers. The tea must be good, and the water really boiling, a fresh supply being made as required. Boiling milk is essential for coffee, and proper coffee sugar. A brass or copper kettle looks well. The china need not all match; friends can lend some, and it can be hired. The tea and coffee should be poured out and handed round with milk, cream, and sugar on a small tray or salver. Different kinds of cakes and other eatables should be well in front, so that guests can help themselves. It is usual to have sandwiches of potted meat, with a very little mustard and cress, or lettuce. They are also nice if made of cucumber, tomato, or egg. A few good sweetmeats help to decorate the table. Claret cup and lemonade are acceptable to lawn-tennis players, and a table with these drinks should be placed near the court. If mashed strawberries or raspberries are served with cream in a silver or china bowl, sugar may be added to taste. A dish of mixed fruit, such as apricots and plums, with grapes hanging down at the sides, is very pretty, especially if a few vine leaves are arranged with them. Tea should go on practically all the afternoon, as friends who come from a distance may take a cup before leaving.

Amusements.—It is essential that the members of the family should devote themselves exclusively to their guests. If they take part in a game of tennis, it should be only because they are actually wanted to make up a set, and never when there is any one else present who might like to play. In the proper performance of their duty, they will have quite enough to do. If things are to work smoothly, they must be carefully planned and arranged. It must be settled beforehand who are to be partners in the next tennis set, who are to play in the next game of croquet, and, in short, how to keep everybody interested without tedious pauses or discussions.

The usual games are lawn-tennis, croquet, bowls, throwing darts at a target, and putting (which only requires a few holes in the grass). Guests should not be obliged to play at anything unless they wish; many prefer sitting down or strolling about. Should it rain, there is certain to be someone who can sing or play. As billiard-tables can now be fixed on dining-tables, they are often found in small houses. This amuses the male guests.

Accommodation for Guests.—In the country, if stable room is limited, arrangements can be made to put up carriages at a farmhouse; a shed will do for bicycles. Tea and cocoa is enough for the men-servants, and arrangements should be made for their having it without coming into the house. A man must be ready to take charge of such carriages as are not accompanied by servants; it is usual to give him a small tip on leaving.

Leaving.—When the guests leave, it is not absolutely necessary for them to say good-bye to their host and hostess. It is quite sufficient for them to shake hands with a son or a daughter. At the same time, if the host happens to know that they are going, he should, as a matter of courtesy, accompany them to the gate.

In the case of a large and formal garden party, it is usual to leave cards afterwards—within a fortnight; but in ordinary cases this is not necessary.

DANCES.

Dances may be "small", "tiny", "early", "early and late", "impromptu", and "surprise". The two latter imply that dancing is not mentioned on the card. In the country a dance should be fixed, if possible, when there is a moon. Any additional help that may be required—waiters,

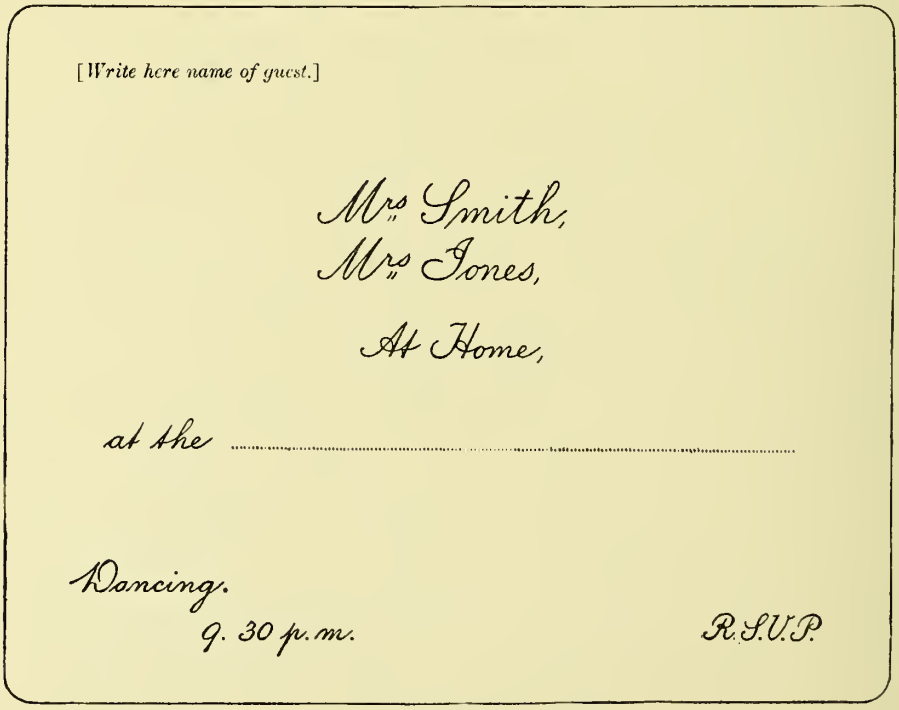


Fig. 489.

cook, and others—must be secured before the invitations are sent out and musicians engaged.

Invitations.—These may be printed or written, and on a card or small sheet of note-paper. If the house is small, it is better to ask people by name. If the house is large, then "Mr. and Mrs. Smith and Party", which includes

all visitors staying in the house, as well as sons and daughters. The time for arriving only may be named, if preferred. When asking young men to come and stay for a dance, it is a good plan to arrange with friends who also intend giving one that both shall be in the same week. This is a mutual advantage. A separate card is sent to sons, unless "Mr. and Mrs. and Party" are asked. When there is no mother, the invitation is—"Mr. and Miss", or "Miss" only, or "The Misses". The daughter undertakes all the duties of hostess, and acts in every way as the mistress of the house. If it is only a small party, it is not always necessary to ask the father and mother. No chaperons are required; girls come with their brothers.

Sometimes when a dance is given to celebrate a daughter's birthday, the invitations are issued in her name. Only young people are asked, and her mother is supposed to chaperon them all. A very light supper is served, and the party breaks up early.

Occasionally two, three, or more ladies join in giving a dance at a public room. The invitations are then sent out in the names of two or more. They share all expenses, each contributing viands for supper, &c., or dividing the cost of catering per head. Band and other expenses are shared also. They use their own chairs, sofas, curtains, and flowers, and bring maids to attend in the cloak-room. Each lady asks her own friends, and they are not necessarily known to the other hostesses. One or two of the hostesses receive the guests. Cards are left by the guests about a week after the party on the hostess with whom they are acquainted.

Bachelors or spinsters may give an invitation dance. The cards are written or printed as shown on page 270.

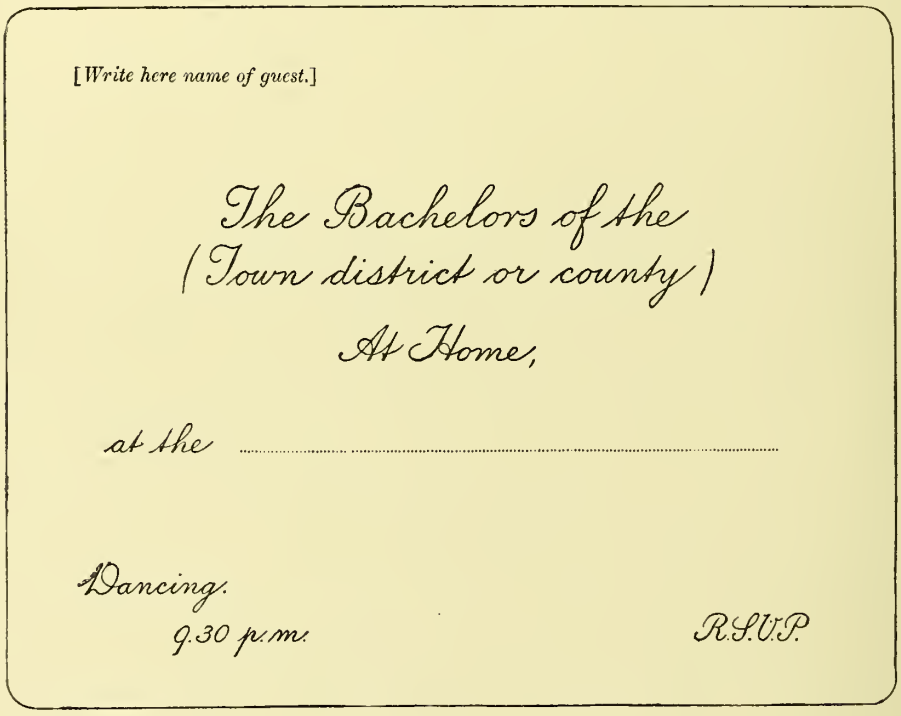
Preparation of each Room.—The hall, if large enough, can be used as a lounge, or for refreshments or for dancing. In this case the front-door must be kept shut and screened by curtains, and the guests enter by a back or side door. Should this arrangement necessitate passing the kitchen or pantry, doors must be closed, and the passages carpeted. The hall, if used as a lounge, must have rugs on the floor, some easy-chairs, and flowering plants in the fireplace and corners, and generally be made pretty and comfortable. It must be well-lighted. If it is only used for refreshments, a buffet and a few chairs will suffice.

Gentlemen leave their coats and hats in a small room on the ground floor set apart for that purpose. They can also be left in the hall, if it is not otherwise required.

The ladies' cloak-room should, if possible, be on the ground floor, and should have a looking-glass (a long one for choice), brushes, combs, scent, powder, pins, and needles and thread, in case dresses are torn. If a bedroom is used, the toilette-table should be nicely set out, and a good fire lighted if the weather is cold. When there are many guests, small numbered tickets (two of each number) are necessary, one to be given to the guest, the other pinned to her cloak. The maid in attendance should be neatly dressed in black, white cap, collar, cuffs, and apron. A white piqué dress is sometimes worn.

The reception-room may be the drawing-room, or a room adjoining the dancing-room.

The largest room, if possible on the ground-floor, or even the hall, may be used for dancing. Should there be any doubt about the safety of the floor, it should be examined by an expert. If not level it should be planed; or, if a parquet floor, well polished. An ordinary floor is improved by being rubbed with milk, and then with a little French chalk, and a very little


[*Write here name of guest.*]

The Bachelors of the
(Town district or county)
At Home,

at the .....

Dancing.
9.30 p.m.

R.S.V.P.

Fig. 490.

bees'-wax. For a small party, brown holland well stretched over the carpet will suffice. The room must be well lighted by gas, lamps, or candles in sconces on the walls—only the best candles, for inferior ones gutter and the wax drops on the floor. The fireplace can be filled with flowering plants, the mantel-piece banked with moss, and flowers (all of one hue) placed in it. A few benches round the walls are often appreciated; if they are common wooden ones, they may be covered with scarlet cloth.

Supper is usually served in the dining-room. If only light refreshments are provided, they are arranged on a buffet, as for tea. They generally consist of sandwiches, lobster salad, jellies, creams, trifles, tipsy cake, biscuits, cakes, and fruit. If a regular supper is given, it is best to have small tables, each laid for four or six guests, with a vase of flowers in the centre, a jug of claret or champagne cup, and some pretty sweatmeats in small china or silver dishes on velvet stands. Pink candles, with pink shades in orna-

mental china candlesticks, look well, unless the room is lighted from the centre. When these little tables are used, all the viands are handed. If a long table is preferred, two of equal height can be placed close together, covered by one cloth. The tables must be a convenient height for the benches or forms (which are better than chairs), and they should be raised or lowered accordingly. There should be plenty of flowers and one or two plants for decoration, the latter in china or brass pots, or silver wine-coolers, and a menu at each corner. A turkey, boned and stuffed, may be at one end, and at the other a game pie, or chickens and a tongue, or ham. If the turkey is roasted the chickens must be boiled, and *vice versâ*. Sweets are placed on the table, and handed when required. Guests go in to supper in relays, the door being temporarily closed while the table is relaid. There must be enough waiters to attend well on the company, and a good supply of cutlery, and spoons and forks. All can be hired, or lent by friends. If the supper cannot be prepared at home, confectioners or the stores will contract to supply everything at so much a head, and will also provide dishes, cutlery, and glass, and send men to arrange the table and fetch all away next day.

If the passages are cold, they must be warmed, especially if large enough to sit in. They need not be brilliantly lighted. There should be lamps in the conservatory, however small; when space permits, chairs should be placed in it. The garden should be illuminated, so that if the evening is warm, guests can promenade there between the dances. There should be a few seats, both garden and basket chairs.

Dress.—The hostess should not be too elaborately dressed. The gentlemen wear evening-dress, white ties, and gloves. If an impromptu dance be started, they cannot all be expected to have brought gloves. It is a good plan to have a pair in the pocket. Ladies always wear gloves; they should be kid or suède, not silk. They keep their gloves on at supper. Sometimes they carry bouquets, but this is not necessary.

Arrival and Reception of Guests.—The host and hostess may stand at the door of the dancing-room to receive their guests. If the drawing-room adjoins the dancing-room, they receive in the former, and they remain there till all the guests have arrived. They shake hands with everyone, whether they have seen them before or not. A lady bringing a party should, on entering, name each person to the hostess. The daughters of the house should not dance at first, but look after their guests. On leaving the cloak-room the guests give their names to the servant, who announces them to his mistress. At a public or subscription dance, they enter unannounced.

Entertainment of Guests.—A card-table may be set out in the drawing-room, or in a room set apart for cards only. Photographs and anything likely to amuse the guests may be left on the tables in the reception-rooms.

Management of the Dancing.—When programmes are not given to the guests, a large card, printed or legibly written with the order of the

dances, should be hung up in the dancing-room, but for a small or impromptu dance nothing of this kind is needed. The musicians are stationed at one end of the room, and, of course, must be provided with seats, music-stands, and plenty of light. While they have supper, a daughter or a guest usually plays a dance. There is no formal opening dance. A waltz is generally played first, and "square" and other dances follow, to the number of eighteen or more. There may be "extras" during supper. "God Save the Queen" is played at the end. At small parties, a guest or daughter may take it in turn to play all the evening. The intervals between the dances should not be long.

Refreshments.—Tea and coffee should be offered to the guests before they enter the dancing-room. A room not required for anything else is best for the purpose, and in that case ices, lemonade, and claret cup may be added. Negus is acceptable in cold weather. A table with a nice clean cloth should be placed at one end of the room, a few vases of flowers down the centre, cakes, biscuits, and bread and butter in front, and the tea and coffee equipage at the back. One or two maids stand behind, and pour it out. They should wear black dresses (or white piqué), white aprons, collars, and cuffs. Waiters may wear white gloves, provided by the host. It is dangerous to put candles or lamps near the edge of the table, and lamps should be well and carefully trimmed, and the best oil used, or they flare up and smell disagreeably.

Subscription Dances.—Sometimes subscription dances are got up by two or three ladies. They send round circulars to friends, saying it is proposed to give a dance on such and such a date, and asking them to bring a party. They mention the tickets will be (ladies') 7*s.* 6*d.*, and (gentlemen's) 10*s.* 6*d.* If one hundred and twenty tickets are sold, success is generally assured. The band costs £8 to £10. Friends lend flowers and help to decorate the room, but very little decoration is required. Maids are brought to attend in the cloak-room. The supper may be a buffet, or a sit-down one. To reduce expenses, viands can be bought with the ticket-money and prepared at home. There is no formal reception or taking leave, nor need for cards to be left on anyone afterwards.

Bachelors' and Spinsters' Dances.—Bachelors and spinsters may give an invitation dance. All arrangements for these dances are made by a committee, and each bachelor wears a badge to distinguish him from the guests. The spinsters in the same way wear a small bunch of flowers. Two or three of the committee receive.

Stable Accommodation.—If the stable accommodation is not sufficient, arrangements should be made in the country for putting up carriages at neighbouring farmhouses. In a town, guests settle for themselves. No supper is then given to the coachmen. In the country, bread and cheese, cold meat and beer are usually provided.

Departure of Guests.—Guests take their departure shortly before the time fixed upon the card. If no time is named for leaving, they enquire on their arrival when carriages are to be ordered. If the party is a large one,

someone should be outside to regulate their approach. Each guest takes leave of either host or hostess. Ladies unaccompanied by gentlemen are escorted to the door.

GUESTS STAYING IN THE HOUSE.

In London, and in other towns, invitations for a visit of some duration are not so popular as in the country. In the average town house it is not always possible to arrange a spare bedroom; also, in the hurry of town life, the constant entertaining of a visitor is sometimes a tie, while if the visitor amuses himself and makes his own engagements, the hostess is apt to grumble.

Hints to Hostess and Guest.—As a general rule visits paid to London friends are not for a long period, from two or three days to a week being the general term of stay. The hostess in entertaining a lady friend should realize that her guest will probably have shopping to do and friends to see, and that she will wish to take the opportunity of visiting the theatres and seeing some pictures; while the guest on her side should remember that it is scarcely polite to be out from morning till night, thereby showing plainly that it was for her own convenience, and not for the pleasure of seeing her hostess, that the visit was paid. When the stay is short the hostess should consult her guest as to her plans, and both should endeavour to make mutual arrangements. A guest, if going to the theatre with other friends, should if possible arrange to dine out rather than put her hostess to the possible inconvenience of changing the dinner-hour. She should always be careful to inform her hostess in ample time if she will be out for luncheon or dinner. Other matters, inconsiderable in themselves, but important to the comfort of the household, should be remembered. In a small town house, when the staircase is narrow and there are no men-servants, a weighty dress-box is likely to be troublesome, and when the staff of servants is limited, and much shopping is being done, the guest will be wise to arrange that parcels shall be sent together, and at one time, instead of at all hours of the day. When paying visits in town the guest is expected to convey herself to and from the station, pay the cabman, and tip the man who brings in the luggage, unless indeed he is a servant of the house.

Tips.—After the visit the housemaid should be presented with a *douceur*, and when only women-servants are kept, one is often given to the parlour-maid in addition. If there are men-servants, something would also be offered them, provided that they have rendered any extra service; otherwise ladies are only expected to give gratuities to the women-servants. Men guests, on the other hand, tip the men-servants.

The amount of the tip to be given is a difficult matter to settle. It depends to some extent on the length of the visit, the services which have been rendered, the social position of the guests, and the style of house in which he or she is staying. In a small house, where housemaid and parlour-

maid are kept, after a visit of a few days to a week, 2*s.* 6*d.* to each servant would be sufficient. In a large establishment a married lady would probably give the housemaid 5*s.*, and her husband would give the same amount to the footman. An unmarried woman would give the housemaid 5*s.* Young girls visiting by themselves are not expected to give large tips, unless indeed they are known to be well off, and are accompanied by a maid. Rich people often present large tips, the husband giving a sovereign to the butler and half-a-sovereign to the footman, and the lady half-a-sovereign to the housemaid.

The system of tipping is one which, for many reasons, is to be deplored. The idea that guests should help to pay the wages of their host's servants is objectionable. Tipping of hotel servants is a different matter, but in private houses high wages are generally paid, and the servants are engaged to wait upon visitors as part of their ordinary work. The practice of tipping, however, is so universal that those people who pay visits must conform to it.

Shooting Parties.—In the country, visits are a recognized form of entertainment during the country-house season, which begins in September for partridge-shooting, and continues throughout the winter for pheasant-shooting, hunting, and balls. Visits such as these do not last for more than four days; the guests arriving about tea-time on Monday, for instance, and leaving on Thursday morning.

Week-end Visits.—Saturday-to-Monday visits are popular in country places which are near London or other large towns. In these cases it is not necessary to provide any special entertainment.

Informal Visiting.—People who live in small houses, and have no shooting to offer, entertain their friends in a simpler manner, giving invitations of a week, ten days, or a fortnight to more or less intimate friends, who are expected to take life as they find it.

Invitations.—Invitations for visits are given by means of letters, and it is now usual to state the length of the visit. For example, the hostess writes:—

Dear Mrs. L.,

We shall be so pleased if you and your husband can come to us from the 10th to the 14th of January. My husband hopes to shoot on Tuesday and Wednesday, and the County Ball takes place on Wednesday night. The best train in the day is the 2.45 at Euston, arriving at Towerbridge at 4.56. The carriage shall be there to meet you. We much hope that you will be able to come to us.

Believe me, Yours very sincerely, &c.

If it is impossible to send a carriage, the last part of the letter might run as follows:—

I am sorry that we cannot send the carriage to meet you, but you will find a cab waiting.

Time of Arrival and Departure.—When paying country visits the time of arrival and departure must be arranged carefully and adhered to, otherwise it may cause the host much inconvenience. Unless there is some reason to the contrary, guests are generally expected to arrive after four and before seven o'clock. If the hostess does not mention a suitable train, the guest, when accepting the invitation, should suggest one.

Meeting Guests.—In the country, when the host lives at some distance from the station, and possesses a carriage, he generally arranges to meet his guests. If this cannot be done, he should at least see that a conveyance of some kind is at the station. At some country-houses it is the custom for the host to pay for the cab which conveys guests to and from his house; in others the guest is expected to defray the cost of his own vehicle. It is unnecessary to say that the host who adopts the former course is the more popular. Unless the guest is well acquainted with the ways of the household, and knows that he will not be allowed to pay for his cab, he must of course do so.

Etiquette of Shooting or Ball Parties.—When a three or four days' party is given, breakfast generally takes place from nine to ten o'clock, and nowadays, except in old-fashioned houses, extreme punctuality is not expected. Luncheon is served at one or half-past, tea at four to five, and dinner at about eight. Early tea is always sent up to the guests when they are called at eight o'clock, and soda-water, whisky or brandy and soda, lemonade or lemon-squash is placed in the hall just before the ladies go upstairs to bed. When the men of the party hunt or shoot, hot baths should be provided on their return, and a somewhat more substantial tea than would otherwise be given. When there is shooting or hunting, the men are well employed. The ladies read, write, talk, walk, or bicycle in the morning, and amuse themselves in much the same way in the afternoon, unless the hostess is able to offer them any special entertainment in the shape of a drive to some place of interest, a visit to mutual friends, or to some bazaar or similar function which it is necessary to patronize.

Management of Guest-chambers.—In a large house, the housekeeper is, of course, responsible for the arrangement of the guest-chambers; in a smaller establishment the hostess must attend to the matter herself. She must assure herself that the beds are thoroughly aired, that there are sufficient blankets, and that matches, candles, and soap are provided. A vase of flowers should be arranged on each dressing-table, together with a pin-cushion and a supply of black and white pins. The servants should be instructed to answer bedroom bells immediately, and to be careful that the wants of the guests are at once attended to.

Duties of Servants.—When guests are unaccompanied by maids or valets, the housemaids are told off to wait on the ladies, the footman on the gentlemen. In a house of medium size the housemaid, on the arrival of the guest, should fetch hot water, and see that the luggage is brought up immediately and unstrapped. If the guest is without a maid, the housemaid must ask for the keys, unpack, ascertain what dress is to be worn,

and put all articles required for the dinner toilette in readiness. In winter the fire should have been lit early in the afternoon. Before the dressing-gong sounds, the housemaid must take up hot water, attend to the fire, and return a little later in case she is required to lace a dress or otherwise help the guest. When the latter has left her room, the housemaid should take down the boots and skirts which require brushing, and make the room tidy. Before bed-time hot water should be taken to the room, the fire made up, night-dress, dressing-gown, and slippers put ready.

Next morning at eight o'clock the dress and boots, hot water, and tea should be taken up, the bath prepared, and the room tidied. If the fire is to be lighted, the grate should be cleaned before the guest is called. After breakfast the ordinary housemaid's work is proceeded with, and hot water is taken to the room before luncheon, and before early tea. If the fire is not kept up throughout the day, it should, if possible, be lighted at three o'clock. When the time arrives for the guest to leave, the housemaid should pack up, being careful to see that no articles are left forgotten either in drawers or cupboards. In a small house where there are perhaps only two servants, the guest cannot receive so much attention. She must expect to pack and unpack for herself, and should in every way endeavour to give as little trouble as possible.

LOCOMOTION.

RIDING AND DRIVING.

Horse and Carriage.—A young couple who intend having a horse and carriage will find their path beset with difficulties at the outset unless they have an experienced friend to advise them what to do, and more especially what not to do. One question they will have to decide is, "What do we want?" or more correctly, "For what purpose do we require a horse and carriage?" This is the first thing a carriage-maker will ask them when they go to purchase. Is it for country use? If so it must be of a heavier build than if intended for town use, unless the roads of their district are exceptionally good. Will the carriage have light or heavy wear? What is the character of the roads over which it has to travel? These are questions that a conscientious dealer will ask his customers, in order to advise them and to supply them with the most suitable vehicle.

What should a young couple choose? If they live in the suburbs and want a carriage for general use—one to take them out to dinner at a friend's and back, or to run them up to a theatre, and also take them for an easy drive now and again—they have the choice between a landau and a brougham. A landau is best for country drives, but unless it is driven by a pair of good "steppers" it always looks "scraped-up"; and in addition, it is a quick-wearing vehicle. A good landau may cost anything between 150 and 200 guineas, and a pair of horses will cost as much, so that the bare initial outlay may amount to £400. The cost of up-keep, *i.e.* shoeing, forage, and coachman, will entail an annual expenditure of £150. If a stable and coach-house have to be hired, the rental forms an additional sum, and beyond this there is wear and tear, besides incidental expenses of a minor kind.

A brougham, on the contrary, is one of the few vehicles that look at all nice with only one horse. It is cheaper to buy in the first instance than a landau, for a very good one can be got for £100 or £120, and many first-class firms will sell a "hundred-and-twenty-pound brougham" for three annual instalments of £42 or £45, a method of payment more frequently adopted than that of paying cash down.

For all-round work there is nothing better than a brougham, and for town use a brougham is indispensable. It possesses the advantage of being easily cleaned, there are no hinges or leather-work to get out of order, and as a rule it has great ease of traction.

Purchase of a Horse.—A more difficult task is the purchase of a horse. The most satisfactory way to get a good horse is to go to a well-known dealer, a man who has a reputation to lose, and tell him frankly what is wanted. At the same time no bargain should be concluded without an examination by a veterinary surgeon, whose fee may be 10*s.* 6*d.* or £1, 1*s.* Get the dealer to give a "warranty" of soundness with the horse, and all will have been done to ensure a satisfactory purchase. A good brougham

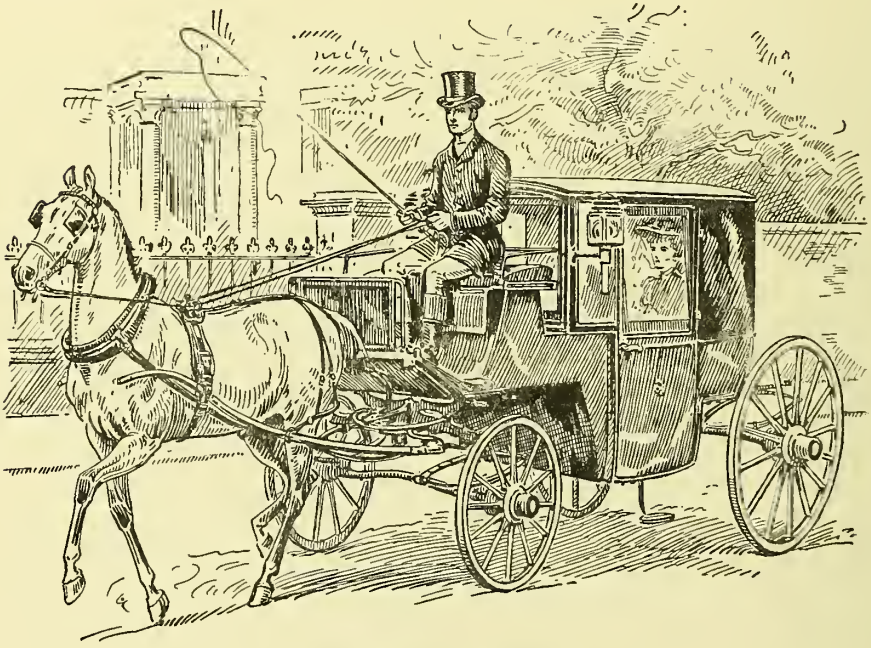


Fig. 491.—One-horse Brougham.

horse of sixteen hands can be bought for £40. A good "stepper", one that lifts the fore-legs well, will cost over £80. A respectable dealer will always change a horse bought from him under warranty, even when the change is a matter of pure caprice.

GOOD AND BAD POINTS OF HORSE. (See Figs. 492 and 493.)

1. Well-formed and intelligent head.
2. Well-arched and shapely neck.
3. Withers well balanced.
4. Back well shaped.
5. Loins and croup well placed.
6. Tail nicely hung, showing trace of Arab blood.
7. Hind-quarter cleanly cut.
8. Hind limbs nicely vertical—well "pillared".
9. The belly of good form.
10. Fore limbs well planted.
11. Chest well proportioned.

1*a*. Obstinate and treacherous head of the "Roman-nosed" type.
2*a*. Heavy badly-shaped neck.
3*a*. Withers thick and short—too heavy at the shoulders.
4*a*. Hollow back, denoting weakness.
5*a*. Loins and croup too square.
6*a*. Tail badly docked.
7*a*. Hind-quarter too long, and running too much "to the fore".
8*a*. Hind limbs too much under the body.
9*a*. The belly a "cow-belly"—slow-paced and short-winded.
10*a*. Fore limbs over at the knees—London "growler" type.
11*a*. Chest "odd" shaped—no staying power.

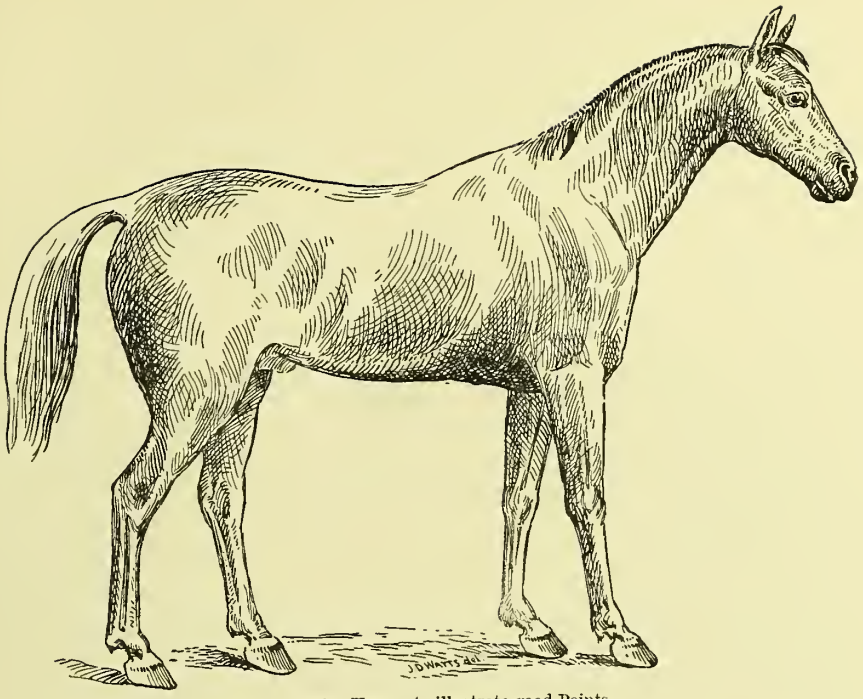


Fig. 492.—Horse: to illustrate good Points.

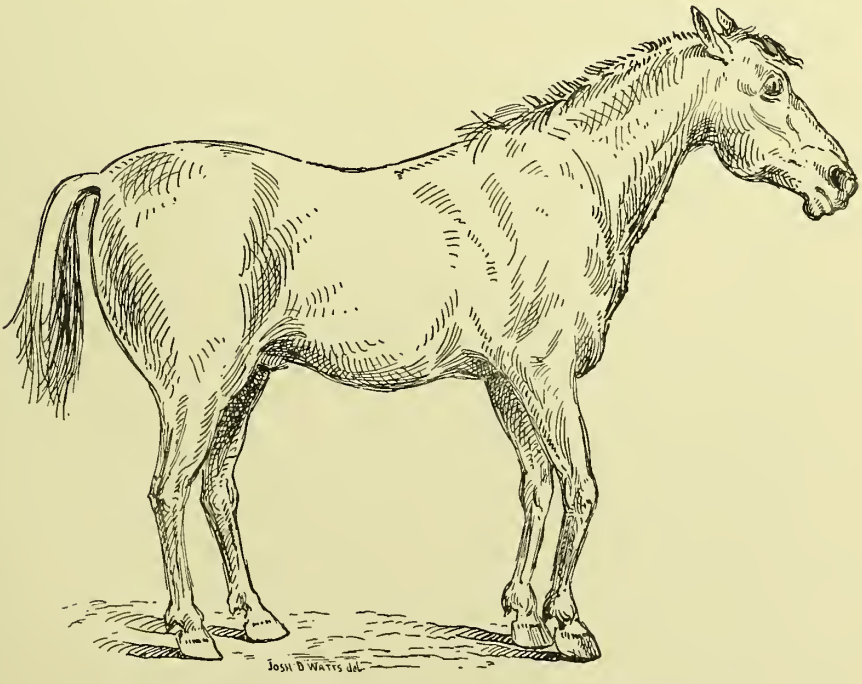


Fig. 493.—Horse: to illustrate bad Points. (See description on page 278.)

A warranty, it may here be explained, may be general or special, or for a length of time determined on by the vendor and purchaser. A "general" warranty explains itself. A "special" one warrants some particular part; for instance, the seller may warrant the horse in his feet. A "time" warranty protects the purchaser for a predetermined period, a month being the usual limit. A very good form of warranty is as follows:—

"Received from John Henry Wells the sum of £80 (eighty pounds) for a bay mare, warranted sound, quiet in harness or to drive, seven years old, and free from vice".

When the animal does not answer to its warranty, the purchaser can enter an action for damages and expenses incurred in keeping the horse until it is disposed of.

There is no need to choose a young horse for harness work; eight-year-olds are as good as one can wish, for by that age they are well up to their work, and have settled down out of the friskiness so apparent in a five- or six-year-old.

Pony and Trap.—A pony and trap is very suitable for a young couple whose income will not support the "keeping up" of a horse and carriage. It is possible to obtain a pony and trap together for £20, but as good cattle cost no more to keep properly than common ones, it is advisable to have a turn-out that looks well. A nice little trap of the Belmont or Ralli type can be purchased at any London carriage dealer's for 30 guineas, and for another 5 guineas rubber-tyres to the wheels can be obtained in place of the metal ones.

The advice given in reference to the purchase of a horse applies to the purchase of a pony. As the mistress may like to take the pony out by herself, it should be warranted "quiet to drive". It is not always convenient to be accompanied by a coachman, and it is very unpleasant to have a restive animal to drive, one that must be held and watched with the utmost vigilance.

The cost of keeping up a small pony and trap would come to about 15*s.* a week in town, and much less in the country, or in a place where the pony could be turned out now and again. This is, of course, exclusive of the wages of a coachman or odd man to look after the pony and trap. The above estimate is for a small pony of fourteen or fifteen hands. The entire cost in the first instance would, roughly, be £60; the pony would cost £25, or even less, the Ralli car £30, and harness £7. The stable expenses come to very much less than those of a brougham and a horse; and, as there are many occasions when it would be "bad form" or inconvenient to use a brougham, a pony trap is often useful. If it costs too much to have a man expressly to look after it, the master can easily manage it himself, and generally much better than any "odd man" would.

Rubber Tyres.—If the trap, brougham, or other vehicle is intended for town use on wood-block paving or asphalt, rubber-tyres are preferable;

they are noiseless in motion, they lighten the draught for the horse to pull, and they lessen the vibration, thus decreasing the wear and so lengthening the life of the vehicle. On the other hand, if they are used on country or

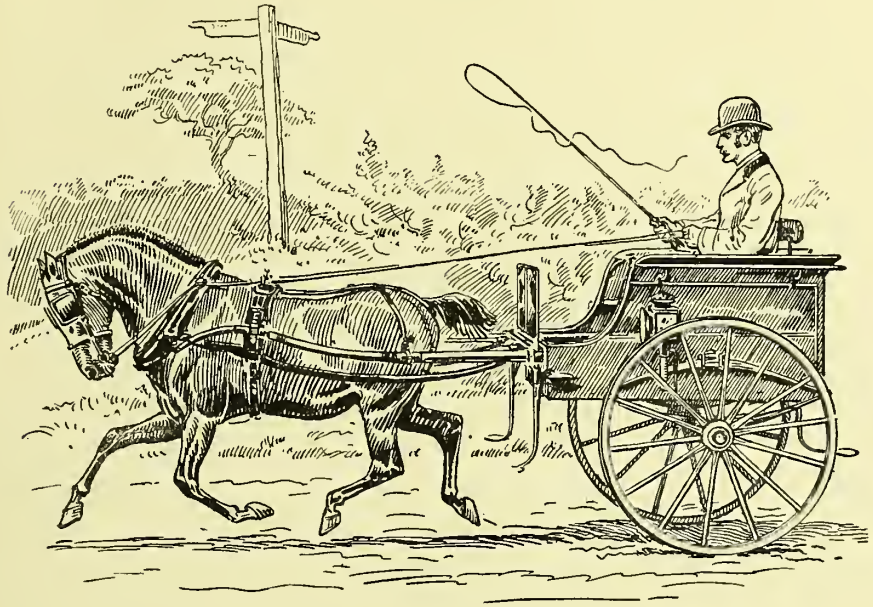


Fig. 494.—Ralli Car.

loose roads, or even on setts, they wear out very quickly, as the sharp edges of the loose stones gash the outer surface of the rubber badly.

Treatment and Care of Horses.—The management of a horse is a matter with which every person who owns a carriage should make himself familiar. It is bad policy to leave too much to the coachman or groom, as unless he is a good man who takes a pride in his charge, the horse is apt to suffer from neglect.

The first duty in the morning is to water the horse. This should never be done after a meal, or indigestion, and perhaps even inflammation, will result. After a few minutes a good breakfast of six pounds of oats and chaff should be turned into the manger, and the water-bucket emptied and refilled, so that the horse may alternately eat and drink. When the meal is finished the water should be taken away, and not left to absorb noxious fumes, and thus become unpleasant if not dangerous. If the horse seems hot, let the water stand half an hour under cover. This is especially important during the winter months, and on cold days at other seasons of the year. Just a little warm water may be poured into a bucketful to take the chill off, but the horse will probably refuse the drink if the water is appreciably warm.

After a little rest the animal must be thoroughly groomed. The first thing is to go over him well with a wisp of hay just dipped in cold water

and shaken out, so that it is no more than damp; then a stiff bristle brush should be used; the feet should be washed well, and all dirt or stones removed from the hoof. When this is done, all the head should be washed over with a small sponge; it is necessary to be especially careful about the eyes and nostrils. The process is concluded by drying well and going over briskly and thoroughly with the brush once more, this time doing the mane and tail. On days when the horse will not be used until late, if at all, he should have an hour's exercise after he has been groomed. Where a stable-boy is kept as well as a groom-coachman, it will be his duty to remove the damp bedding, sort out that part of it which can be used again, and get it dried during the time that the horse is out for exercise. On returning to the stable, the horse should have a final brush down. He cannot be groomed too much; the more this is done the better he will look, and the more fit he will be for his work. After work of any kind, such as an afternoon call on the owner's friends, or even after a night trip to the theatre and back, the grooming must be done once more. Many men will neglect this when the hour is late, but the master should see that it is properly carried out.

The usual bedding for horses is straw, but sawdust is much to be preferred. When freshly laid it has a much cleaner appearance, and does not heat the feet as the straw does. Many horses eat their bed, and unfortunately once the habit has been acquired it is a lasting one, as long as straw is used, but no horse will eat sawdust.

Ill-treatment often causes and always aggravates viciousness, for which reason any impatience in a groom should be rebuked at once. Some horses are so thin-skinned that a bristle causes real pain to them, and the result is that they flinch and kick. In such cases the groom not infrequently ties the horse up tighter, and at every flinch it gives beats it with the brush, and if it kicks, ill-treats it still further, until after a week or two it has become confirmedly vicious at grooming-time. Unfortunately, although the cause can be guessed, the mischief is not easily prevented, for a man is not likely to show impatience if he suspects that he is being watched. The only thing that can be done is to discharge the groom, and tell his successor what to expect of the horse, pointing out that uniform kindness may cure him.

Should a horse develop the bad habit known as crib-biting, remove all the utensils and saw off all projections in the stable, leaving it bare of fittings. The fodder must be thrown on the floor. A crib-biter can never be kept in proper condition.

Shoeing is a matter requiring careful attention. Worn shoes are dangerous; no horse should be driven with them, for they are one of the most frequent causes of accidents.

When a horse falls ill, a properly-qualified veterinary surgeon should at once be sent for. Above all, the groom should not be allowed to "dose" the animal, since he is not unlikely to give an unsuitable medicine which may delay recovery. Of course, a mere trifling ailment is a different thing;

in that case a ball or a powder, administered in time, will often save a heavy bill. Nearly every chemist, for about a shilling, will be able to mix up a ball or a powder for a slight indisposition if the symptoms are properly described.

A hungry horse must not have his first feed on chaff alone; a few handfuls of hay pulled from the truss should be given first. A horse when hungry bolts his food, and chaff thus taken is apt to bring on colic.

Beans ought to be of the previous year's growth, and should weigh at least sixty-two pounds to the bushel. The inside should fill the shell well and taste sweet.

Bran is one of the finest things to have in a stable, being a laxative if well-damped; it keeps the animals in good condition. To have an astringent effect it must be given dry. It spoils if kept too long. Good bran is sweet-smelling and cool to the hand; musty bran should not be purchased. Meadow-hay makes the best chaff, but green oat-straw may be used at a pinch. It should be well cut, and is more nutritive when mixed with green food or mangels.

Carrots and parsnips are splendid food, especially for convalescent horses, restoring them to good condition very quickly. Sliced up with a few oats and some beans they form a rich meal. It is cheapest to purchase them in the autumn, in sufficient quantity to last over the winter and early spring months.

Green stuff is very good spring food if given fresh, otherwise horses are better without it. Clean lawn-clippings, mixed with hay or oats, may be given occasionally. The best of all green foods is lucerne, but vetches are commonly used.

Hay for horses should be hard and crackling. Soft hay is of no use except for milking-cows. Eighteen hundredweight to the load is about the right weight for old, well-dried hay, and anything lighter ought not to be purchased.

Linseed is useful for mashes.

Maize, being cheaper than good oats, is often used as a substitute, especially in livery stables. It should not be given unless the animals are regularly working in harness.

Mangel-wurzel is good in summer, but requires to be well pulped and then mixed with chaff.

Mashes are very useful and necessary at times; the two kinds in general use are bran mash and bran-and-linseed mash. To make a bran mash rinse out well a wooden bucket with boiling water; put in three pounds and a half of bran and a piece of salt the size of a walnut, pour on this three pints of boiling water; stir it for a couple of minutes, cover it, and let it stand nearly half an hour. A bran-and-linseed mash takes longer to prepare. Boil a pound of linseed in three quarts of water until there are only about two quarts of liquid. This will take nearly three hours. Add two pounds of bran and a small handful of salt, and stir round and cover up as directed in the first recipe. Sometimes a horse refuses a mash for no

apparent reason. In such a case boil up a quartern of oats and add it to the mash. The aroma of the oats often entices the horse to eat when other means fail.

Oats should weigh at least forty lbs. to the bushel. The skin ought to be smooth and thin. The flavour should be sweet, and the oats themselves should look plump. It is an economy to get the best quality when purchasing.

Oil-cake is useful to horses when they are changing their coats. The inferior qualities should be avoided.

Potatoes and other roots are best given in hay-chaff.

Rye-grass is useful at times when heavy work is being done.

Salt is, as a general rule, much liked by horses. A large lump of rock-salt may be put in the manger.

Sugar is wholesome when the animals are in poor condition, as it helps to fatten them up.

Care of Carriage.—The carriage should never, in any circumstances, be cleaned inside the house, for this causes dampness, and when the place is shut up and gets warm the moisture settles on the carriage and takes the "bloom" off the varnish. A linen cover should always be bought or made to fit over the brougham to protect it from dust and damp, both of which destroy the varnish. A carriage should never be put away dirty, and should never be cleaned in the sun. Plenty of water and a large, soft sponge should be used. A syringe, with very small perforations to make a fine spray, is also useful in a coach-house. Should the varnish or enamel be stained, a mixture in equal portions of linseed-oil, hot vinegar, and turpentine will be found an excellent preparation, not only to remove the stains, but to preserve the woodwork of the carriage. It occasionally happens, especially when the carriage is used during wet weather, that the steps get rusty. To remedy this they should be brushed over from time to time with some of the prepared Brunswick black, which is sold very cheaply in tins.

To keep off moths, the doors and windows should always be closed when putting the carriage away. If they should succeed in getting in, the only thing to do is to fumigate the interior of the carriage with a mixture of camphor and turpentine.

The points of friction, such as the bearings of the axles and the slides of the fore-carriage, should always be kept well greased.

Harness.—When buying harness, get the best. It takes up no more room than harness of inferior quality, and certainly lasts longer, in addition to looking better. Good harness, which is invariably hand-sewn, can be trusted at a critical moment, whereas the ordinary sorts are put together by a machine, and the stitches may give way when one's safety depends upon them.

Unnecessary brass and plating are in bad form, and also take a great deal of valuable time to keep clean and in good order. Whiting is the best thing for cleaning metal, which should afterwards be well polished

with a soft, dry chamois-leather. When the coachman takes the harness off the horse after coming in from a drive, he should thoroughly dry with a cloth such parts as may have become damp through contact with the horse's skin—the inside of the collar-roll, the under part of the saddle, and the harness-pad. If these are neglected, the sweat becomes encrusted on them, and so causes soreness in back and shoulders. Unless the horse be relieved from work for some time, such wounds are very difficult to heal, owing to the constant chafing from the harness.

Every month the leather should be well rubbed over with an oiled rag to keep it supple and in good condition. Periodical inspections are to be commended, as small flaws are thus discovered which, if neglected, might result in an accident. Every year, at a time when the carriage will not be in use for a week or two, the whole set of harness should be sent off to the makers to be thoroughly overhauled. By this means it is always kept in good condition, and lasts much longer than if neglected and allowed to fall into disrepair.

The Stable.—If possible a south-westerly situation should be chosen for the stable, so that its occupant may not take chills through being exposed to northerly or easterly winds. All the windows should be made to open by a couple of hinges at the bottom of the frame, so that the fresh air on entering the stable strikes upward. There should be one window at least over the manger and two at the side, to enable the horse to see what he is eating, and the groom to clean him properly.

The best of all the kinds of flooring is roughened asphalt. It is best to employ a good asphalt-paving firm, as inexperienced people are apt to lay it wrongly. If, on enquiry, this seems too expensive, a channelled brick floor may be used. The channels should be well incised into the material of each brick, as they are intended not merely for drainage, but also to prevent the horse from slipping. The building is usually made of the best stock bricks, and the part which actually forms the stable is, or should be, lined with well-glazed bricks, which harbour no dirt of any kind. A swill from a bucket of water and a rub over with a cloth is all that is necessary to keep them clean.

The drainage is a matter of the utmost importance. Above all, there should be no open untrapped drains in connection with a sewer in or near a stable. Persons living in suburban districts should be particularly warned against this. The surface or other drains should be flushed down with two or three buckets of water every day, and in hot weather a little disinfectant powder should be added in order to cleanse them thoroughly.

The partitions between the horses, if more than one are kept, may be of wood, brick, or iron. Iron is not to be recommended, as it has a tendency to cause capped hocks. Good seasoned oak, over two inches in thickness, is preferable to either brick or iron.

The manger must be kept clean, and therefore wood is as good as anything, for a groom can easily get a bucket of hot water and give it a scrub

out now and again. It should extend from one side of the stall to the other.

If there is room a box is much better than a stall, for it enables a horse to get a little exercise. This is especially necessary when the occupant is only taken out a few days a week. The box ought to be large, say thirteen feet square, so that the horse may be able to turn round comfortably without running his nose or tail against the sides. In this case the manger cannot conveniently extend from side to side, and one of a triangular shape is most common. It may be of either wood or iron, situated in the left-hand corner, with a hay-rack above it just high enough for the horse to reach without stretching his neck. The water-bucket may be placed in the opposite corner at the same height as the manger. A flat triangular sheet of iron with a circular hole cut out to receive the bucket is the most simple and most useful support.

The Loft.—The loft is in most places situated over the stable and coach-house, communicating with them by means of a ladder and trap-door. Two or three windows are necessary to give plenty of light. The loft should be a store-room for fodder and bedding; nothing else should be kept there. The best bins are made of galvanized iron; they can be obtained in all sizes, and are secure against the attacks of rats and mice.

A small wooden fence, two feet high, placed at a convenient distance from one end of the loft and extending from one side to the other, is extremely useful to stack hay and straw; the bars effectually prevent the loose wisps and stalks from littering about the floor. Close to this fence should stand the chaff-cutting machine. The edges of the knives need careful attention, for chaff should always be well cut if it is to be masticated easily.

The principal fodders for which accommodation must be provided are beans, bran, chaff, carrots, green food, hay, linseed, maize, mangel-wurzel, oats, oil-cake, potatoes, roots, rye-grass, salt, and sugar.

Rats and mice are often a trouble. If the fodder is kept in bins the difficulty is lessened, but not entirely obviated. The only thing that is really efficacious is poison, which should be spread on bread-and-butter, and placed near the holes.

The Coach-house.—In modern suburban houses the stable and coach-house form one building. This is a bad arrangement, as the ammoniac fumes from the stable spoil the varnish of a carriage. In such a case it is not likely that the makers will revarnish a carriage free of charge, even under a warranty, as a successful plea of contributory negligence—the carriage not having been housed in a proper place—could be set up. In every case the coach-house should be divided from the stable by a brick wall or a "double" wooden partition. The latter is made by placing from the ground to the ceiling 4-inch quartering, 4 feet apart, lining this on both sides with $\frac{5}{8}$-inch match-boarding, and packing tightly the space between with pine saw-dust. The wood may be varnished on the coach-house side, and either left plain or whitewashed on the stable side. Such a partition

is even better than one of brick, for no fumes can pass through it from the stable, and the saw-dust filling keeps the coach-house warm and of an even temperature.

The best of all floorings for the coach-house is the "wood-block". It retains the warmth, wears better, and lasts longer than concrete or ordinary wood flooring, and does not make so much noise when the carriage is run

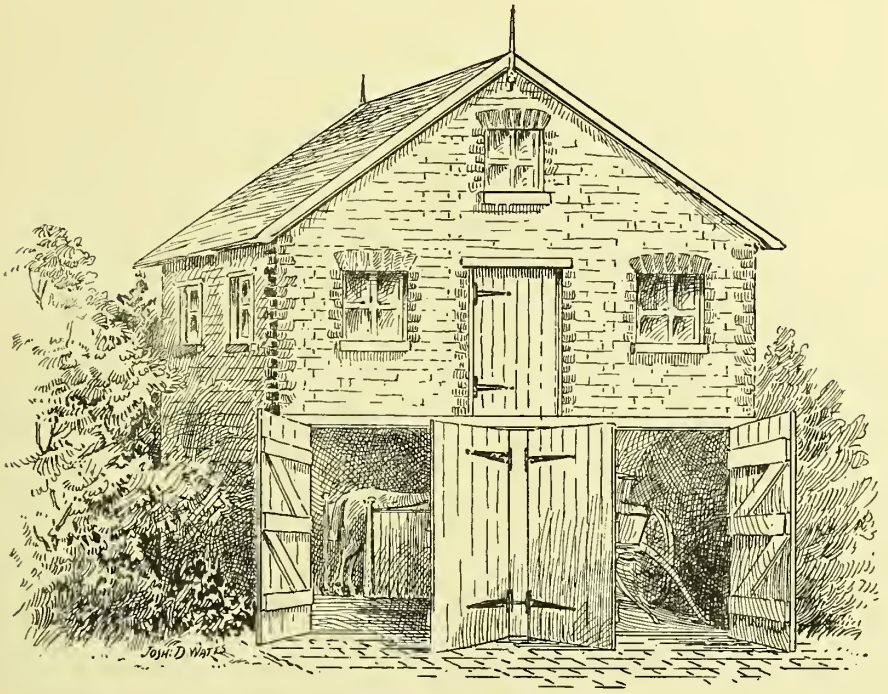


Fig. 495.—Stable and Coach-house.

in and out. It is easily cleaned, and looks much better than any other kind of floor.

If possible, a projecting roof should be fixed over and beyond the doors of the house. This will be found extremely useful during unseasonable weather as a shelter in cleaning the brougham or trap.

Harness-room.—As want of space often prevents a separate room being devoted to the harness, the coach-house is used for that purpose as well. There is no objection to this, unless more than one carriage is kept. A few hooks and wooden supports can easily be driven through the inner wood-work to form a strong attachment, and the harness or the various parts can be put on them.

Coachman.—Perhaps the most trying matter is the selection from a number of applicants of a suitable man for the position of coachman, or groom and gardener. Those whose incomes are limited will find it best to engage a man fitted for both situations. It sometimes answers well to have a married man, so that his wife may assist the mistress and the other

servants in the house. Generally speaking, better work is done by married than by single men, as they are more steady.

Where the coachman's position is a separate one, it is a common custom for him to order the fodder and other necessaries, and pay the accounts. The reason is that he may have a chance of adding to his income by commission. This is a matter that should be settled between master and man at the time of engagement. No servant should be allowed to receive any commission; the system is not only bad in itself, but is a strong inducement to fraud. It is far better for both parties not to let the coachman order anything on his own responsibility; he should be given to understand that he must consider his master's property, and not his own pocket.

CYCLING.

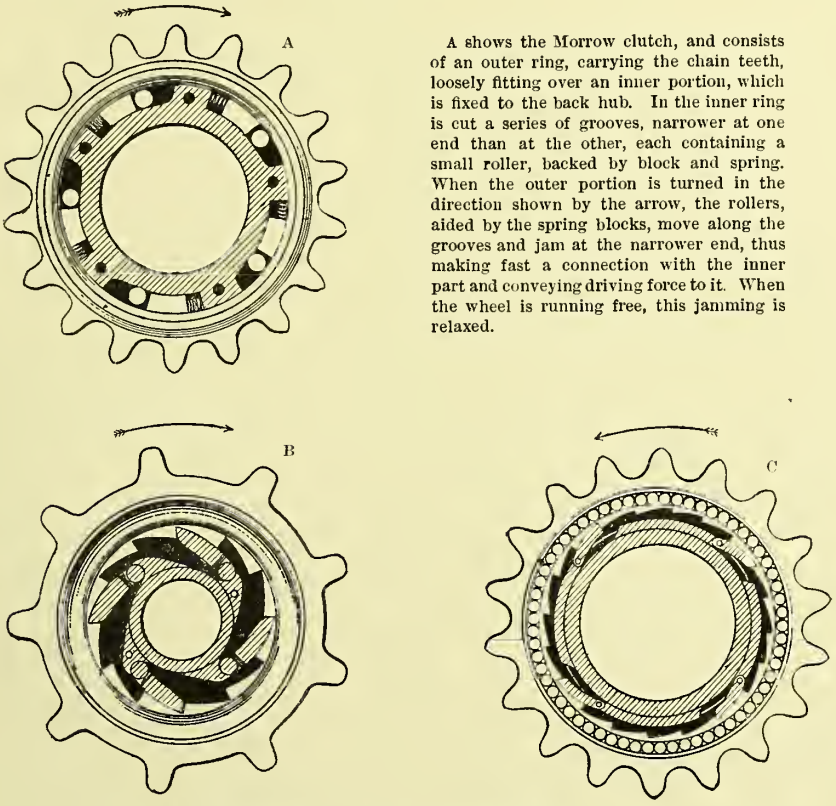
Choice of a Cycle.—It is the cheapest plan in the long run for the would-be cyclist to go to a maker of repute and buy the best machine he can afford. This is practically the only method whereby one may secure a reliable mount. Neither good material nor good workmanship is put upon a cheap cycle.

The machines of higher grade are well worth the large price asked for them, for they are made by "time" and not by "piece". The difference between a high and a low grade is apparent to a striking degree if the two machines can be seen before they are plated and enamelled. In the "time-made" one, it will be seen that every part has been thoroughly and carefully gone over, that the material of which it is made is absolutely flawless, and that the machine, even in its rough state, looks perfect. The "piece-made" cycle, on the other hand, is not nearly so "clean" in appearance; the tubing seems to have a much coarser grain, the brazing is rough and, in some places, untouched by the file, and the whole machine lacks the perfection conspicuous in the other. It must be remembered that the large manufacturers, with their enormous capital, have the pick of the market for materials and workmen, and, in addition, possess special machinery, which gives them a decided advantage. Still, very good machines can often be purchased from trustworthy local makers, and where this can be done the saving in expense is considerable. The chief drawback is that in the event of a re-sale, it is difficult to get a fair price. A well-known name counts for much at such times.

Nearly all machines are warranted—that is, the manufacturer agrees, if the cycle breaks down within a certain time, usually twelve months, owing to bad workmanship or imperfection of material, to replace or repair without any charge to the purchaser. The warranty only applies to the machine itself, and does not include the tyres and saddle; any defect in these must be referred to the actual makers of the articles.

For general use a "roadster" type of machine, weighing about 30 lbs.,

should be chosen; the best gear to have on such a bicycle would be a sixty or a sixty-three. Higher gears mean a loss of power and increased difficulty of propulsion. A lady's machine should be geared to about fifty-eight, and as the cranks are usually only six inches, this will be found quite high enough for comfortable riding. A "roadster" bicycle, being heavier than a "road-racer", stands a good deal more of heavy work. There are plenty



A shows the Morrow clutch, and consists of an outer ring, carrying the chain teeth, loosely fitting over an inner portion, which is fixed to the back hub. In the inner ring is cut a series of grooves, narrower at one end than at the other, each containing a small roller, backed by block and spring. When the outer portion is turned in the direction shown by the arrow, the rollers, aided by the spring blocks, move along the grooves and jam at the narrower end, thus making fast a connection with the inner part and conveying driving force to it. When the wheel is running free, this jamming is relaxed.

Fig. 496.—Sections of Free-wheel Clutches (fitting on back hub).

B (Whippet) and C (Raleigh) are actuated by means of arrangements of ratchets and pawls. When the outer portion of either is turned in the direction of the arrows, the ratchets receive a thrust by which driving force is imparted. But if this driving ceases, the inner portions (shaded) fixed to the hub can still go on turning, the pawls slipping over the ratchets with a slight clicking noise.

of roads in this country that would shake a road-racer to pieces, over which a roadster would travel without any damage to itself or much discomfort to the rider. The roadster tyres, also, are thicker in the "tread", hence there is less likelihood of punctures occurring.

The use of rubber or "rat-trap" pedals is a matter of individual taste. The latter have the advantage in weight, but are apt to destroy the soles of the rider's shoes.

Free Wheels.—Bicycles with "free wheels" have become very popular of late, and are likely to become more popular still in the future. They

continue to move after pedalling has ceased, sometimes for miles when the road is downhill or when there is a strong wind behind. This, of course, saves a rider a great deal of often unnecessary exertion. Another advantage of the free wheel is the fact that there is less tendency to side-slip, for when passing over a particularly greasy patch of road the rider can sit motionless in his saddle. The chief drawback is that the machine cannot be stopped by back-pedalling; it can be stopped only by means of a brake, and to stop in this way, even when a back-pedalling brake is used, is an effort of the will of which many persons in a sudden emergency are incapable. Hence for nervous riders free wheels are hardly to be recommended.

There are already many varieties, but the principle in most is the same —a clutch attached to the driving-wheel. This clutch acts so long as the pedals are being propelled, but when they cease to revolve it is thrown out of gear. The clutch should always be kept well oiled. There is usually a small hole for the purpose.

Tyres.—Tyres are of two kinds, double-tube and single-tube. The "Dunlop" is an example of the double-tube. It has a separate inner tube, and is protected by an outer rubber cover lined with canvas. The cover is kept in position on the rim by a pair of parallel endless wires. The Hartford, Vim, and Goodrich may be taken as examples of single-tube tyres. They are in common use in America, but in this country the double-tube is most favoured. A single-tube when punctured is more difficult to mend.

Saddle.—No one should buy a machine without trying whether the saddle suits or not. An easy saddle means comfortable riding. The saddles supplied with the high-grade machines are of the best makes, and, as a rule, will be found quite comfortable; if not, a slight alteration of the position, either by raising or lowering it, or setting it further forward or backward, as the case may be, will often rectify any slight discomfort noticeable when the machine is first mounted.

The materials of which saddles are made are various; leather, canvas, wood, metal, and rubber entering into their manufacture. The pneumatic saddles may be recommended for ladies' use. If the machine purchased is fitted with a leather saddle of the ordinary pattern, a cover will be found an improvement. But it should be a ventilated one; the cheap unventilated covers are useless for the purpose for which they are designed, and really cause more chafing than an unprotected saddle.

Lamp.—The designs of the numerous lamps in the market are bewildering in their variety. The illuminating power may be oil, gas, or electricity. A lamp serves the two-fold purpose at night of warning pedestrians and the drivers of vehicles, as well as other cyclists, of one's approach, and of enabling the cyclist himself to avoid any impediment which may be in his way.

In nine cases out of ten an oil lamp will be chosen by a purchaser, and care should be taken to have one with a large reservoir, a wide wick, a powerful lens, and a good reflector. A large reservoir is wanted, because

when riding any distance at night it is most annoying to find the oil-supply running short perhaps five miles or even more from one's destination; the reservoir should hold sufficient oil to burn for eight consecutive hours. A lamp that can easily be cleaned should be preferred; unless this cleaning is performed at regular intervals the light-giving power will be reduced. Such reduction is often due to the lens and reflector wanting a "rub-up" with a good polishing-cloth.

The electric lamp needs an accumulator, which is usually carried in a leather case behind the saddle. It generally keeps alight for ten hours, but with some makes the light is not reliable, although very powerful. Improvements, however, are being made, and before long electric lamps may be in universal use.

The acetylene-gas lamp needs a water reservoir, from which the water drops into a chamber containing carbide of calcium, thus generating the gas, which is conveyed to the burner through a rubber tube.

Brake.—The brake should in all cases be a powerful one; it may be called upon to save the cyclist himself or someone else from a serious, if not a fatal, accident. The adjustment should be such that when the brake is "off", the spoon, or that part which comes into contact with the tyre, is only just clear; a gentle pressure will then put the whole power of the brake into action. If the tyre is slack the brake cannot act with its full force, so the front tyre should always be kept well blown-up in order that there may be no failure at a critical moment. As the brake is very liable to get out of order, it should be tested before a ride, and after every mischance, however slight. No rider should put the brake "on" sharply, except in unusual circumstances, as in light machines the resulting vibration is harmful to the machine, and there is some chance that the front fork may be bent or the wheel twisted.

Important as a good brake is for an ordinary machine, it is absolutely essential for a free wheel. Indeed, in that case every prudent rider will have two, one for general use and the other for emergencies. As to the best kind authorities differ, some advocating rim-brakes, others tyre-brakes, and yet others band-brakes. The disadvantage of the tyre-brake, of course, is that the tyre may collapse at a critical moment, though the chances are certainly very slight that both tyres will be punctured simultaneously. It has been asserted that in any case they must be quickly worn out, but this is not borne out by experience. On the contrary, though the brake itself, even when made of hard steel, shows signs of wear after a time, the tyre itself seems quite uninjured. Perhaps, on the whole, a rim-brake may be the better, but it has its disadvantages also, for grit collects upon it, and by scratching off the enamel spoils the look of the machine. Whatever kind is preferred, there should be one on each wheel, the usual combination being an ordinary plunger-brake for the front wheel, and a back-pedalling brake (actuated by a clutch) for the other. Thus equipped, no rider need be afraid to go down any but the steepest hills, for the pace can be perfectly regulated and the machine stopped in a moment.

Tool-bag and Tools.—With the majority of machines, a tool-bag and a set of tools suitable for the size of the nuts and screws are provided. As a rule they are made of the best steel and cut to gauge, so that it is almost impossible to "burr" the edges of the nuts. The tool-bag, when it has to be purchased, should be of fair size, and made of leather. A small one, when full and buckled up, always looks unsightly. It should contain a set of spanners, or one adjustable spanner in preference to a screw-hammer, as, unless the latter is of the best make, the lower jaw is apt to get loose and "burr" or wear the edges of the nuts. A screw-driver is needed for the few screw-heads to be found on a machine; an oiler to lubricate the bearings; and a couple of rags or pieces of linen to rub off any superflous oil, and to rub up the machine generally.

Learning to Ride.—A person who is about to learn should first try whether the fittings of the machine are rightly adjusted. Of course, someone will be required to hold it during this operation. The height of the saddle should be attended to first. The rider should just be able to place the toes under the pedal at its lowest point when the foot is in a horizontal position. The handle-bar must next receive attention. The proper position is determined largely by personal predilection; some prefer the handles low and some high.

A friend who is a cyclist is a wonderful help to a learner, and can teach more in five minutes than could be explained in as many pages of written matter; but to those who have to rely upon themselves the following advice is offered.

Learn on an old machine. This is advisable, because however careful the learner may be, he must expect an occasional fall, from which, as he has not learnt how to fall, some damage to the machine may result. He should not, therefore, risk a new machine. It should also be low enough for his feet to touch the ground when they are off the pedals, as in that way he gains confidence and also mounts easily.

Learn on a lawn if possible rather than on a road. A fall on turf is less likely to cause injury either to the cycle or to its rider, and on a lawn there is no traffic to confuse the beginner. The mere learning to ride is as nothing compared with the fear of approaching traffic. The safest plan for a beginner, when he finds himself losing his nerve because a cart fifty yards off is approaching him, is to get off and wait until it has passed by; otherwise he will probably run into either the fence or the cart.

The position on the machine should be easy and upright; no advantage is gained by leaning forward over the handle-bars. Scorching is to be avoided, and so is that absurd practice of "hanging-on". A man or woman who indulges in scorching is sowing the seeds of heart-disease; moreover, a scorcher, did he only know it, loses all the best pleasures of cycling. Ride slowly, and increase gradually the distance travelled. Let the first ride on the highway after learning to control the machine not exceed one mile out and home; it will be found quite far enough. After a week's practice a

five-mile ride may be taken, and afterwards the distance may be increased little by little.

The Care of a Cycle.—One of the most important things in connection with a bicycle is the care of it; if neglected, it cannot continue to look nice and run easily. After a long journey cleaning the machine may be a very trying task, but it is a task that must not be shirked except in extreme cases. First go over all the frame with a dry cloth to remove any mud or dust. When all the mud and dust is removed, wipe the frame well with an oily rag. The rims of the wheels must be treated in the same manner. Afterwards go very carefully over the hubs and bearings, the head and crown, and round the bottom bracket and pedals, wiping away every speck of grit. Next oil the machine through the various lubricating holes. A long bent-nose oil-can is the best kind for the purpose. If the bearings get clogged at all put in some paraffin, and rapidly revolve the working part until the paraffin runs out as clear as it went in. Two, or even three applications may be needed before the black viscid stream which first oozes through changes to a clear liquid. The chain when unprotected by a gear-case is sometimes difficult to clean properly. The quickest and surest way is to undo the small screw which holds it together, and then to soak the chain in a deep basin of paraffin; when it is replaced lubricate each link with vaseline and powdered black-lead. No oil should be allowed to drop on the rubber of the tyres; if by chance this does happen, it should be washed off at once with cold water.

A repairing outfit containing prepared rubber, canvas, sand-paper, a tube of solution, a tube of powdered chalk, and two valve rubbers, as well as full directions for repairing a puncture, can be obtained at any cycle shop for sixpence or a shilling. A tyre should always be pumped up hard; if not, punctures will be frequent, and the continual jolting may nip the inner tube between the steel rim and the ground, making a tear or cut three or more inches in length. Always carry a few spare nuts and screws in the tool-bag when riding any distance, so that should one break on the machine, it may be at once replaced. A hank of soft copper wire is also useful; should a spoke break, when wound round the fractured place it will keep the two ends in position for a considerable time. When a piece of sharp stone on the roadway cuts the outer cover of the tyre, the rider ought to dismount at once, and repair the cut with a little solution; if the canvas has been cut through, the cover must be taken off, and a piece of canvas solutioned over the cut on the under side.

Few are fortunate enough to ride long without a puncture. When one occurs, the rider must dismount immediately it is noticed, for riding on an empty tyre will cause the rim to cut, and gash the cover and sometimes the inner tube. The outer cover must be removed, and the inner tube drawn out to discover the position of the puncture. If the exact place of the leakage is known, by just pushing the edge of the cover to the centre of the rim, and then easing the other tube through, the inner tube can be pulled out without taking the cover off. If the puncture is not visible, to find

out where it is blow the tube up to normal size and plunge it under water, when the string of escaping air-bubbles will reveal the locality. Dry the tube, and clean the part round the puncture with glass-paper, or with the head of a wax-match. Take a piece of the prepared rubber large enough to cover and overlap the fissure; clean it and cover it with a thin coating of solution, as well as the parts round the puncture on the tube itself. Allow this nearly to dry, and then press the two solutioned surfaces together, when they will immediately adhere. Sprinkle a little

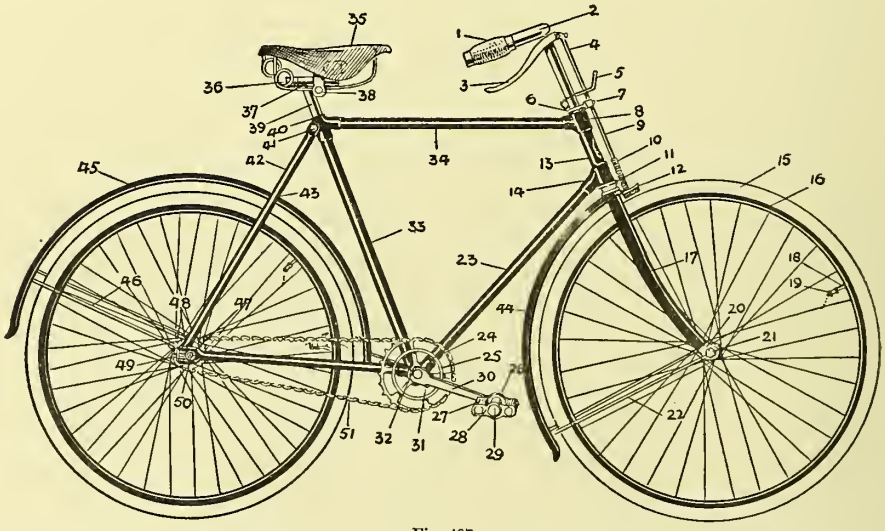


Fig. 497.

1. Handle.
2. Handle-bar.
3. Brake-lever.
4. Brake-rod.
5. Lamp-bracket.
6. Steer-lock.
7. Bracket adjustment clip.
8. Top head loop.
9. Brake-rod tube.
10. Brake-rod spring.
11. Fork crown.
12. Brake-spoon and rubber-brake.
13. Socket-tube.
14. Bottom head loop.
15. Front tyre.
16. Front rim.
17. Front fork.
18. Valve.
19. Valve-cap.
20. Front fork end.
21. Front fork axle and nut.
22. Front mudguard-stays.
23. Bottom tube.
24. Crank-bracket.
25. Front chain-wheel.
26. Pedal lock-nut (not seen in drawing).
27. Pedal rubber.
28. Pedal end-plate.
29. Pedal dust-cap.
30. Crank.
31. Cotter-pin.
32. Crank-bracket axle.
33. Seat tube.
34. Top tube.
35. Saddle.
36. Seat-pillar T-piece.
37. Seat-pillar clip.
38. Saddle clip and nut.
39. Seat-pillar.
40. Seat-bracket.
41. Seat-bolt.
42. Back fork.
43. Back mudguard-stay.
44. Front mudguard.
45. Back mudguard.
46. Back mudguard-stay
47. Back fork end.
48. Back chain-wheel.
49. Gear-wheel adjustment.
50. Back wheel axle.
51. Chain.

powdered chalk over the patch to prevent it from sticking to the outer cover when put back. Replace the cover and blow up the tyre. In putting the cover back care must be taken not to nip the inner tube between the rim and the edge of the cover, as it would then burst when ridden.

It occasionally happens that a tube leaks without being punctured; in such cases the fault is generally in the valve or the valve-seat. If it is the valve that leaks, put in a new tube; two are sold for a penny. When the valve-seat is at fault, the canvas round the valve must be loosened with benzine, taken off, and resolutioned afresh.

When a repair becomes necessary, the beginner should take the machine to a practical cycle repairer, as the amateur will nearly always do more harm than good if he undertakes the task himself. If the screws and adjustments are tightened up now and again, very little will go amiss. Should the forks at any time require straightening, turn the machine upside down and sit on the ground facing the front wheel, brace the feet against the bottom bracket, and pull the ends of the forks forward with the hands. If the pedal-pin or crank is slightly bent, the machine can be ridden to a blacksmith, and the bend straightened in a powerful vice. Neither heat nor hammering ought to be used. Should a saddle-spring break, the machine can be ridden if a piece of wood is fixed under the saddle.

The illustration shows all the parts of a cycle, with their various names. Advice which is good in the case of veteran and novice alike, is—Don't take the machine to pieces, or unscrew this or take off that, unless there is absolute need for it. Very few persons can take a cycle to pieces and then put it together again so that it will afterwards run as well as it did previously.

Cycle Shed.—It is always convenient to have some place where the cycle may be put out of harm's way. A bicycle that is simply wheeled into

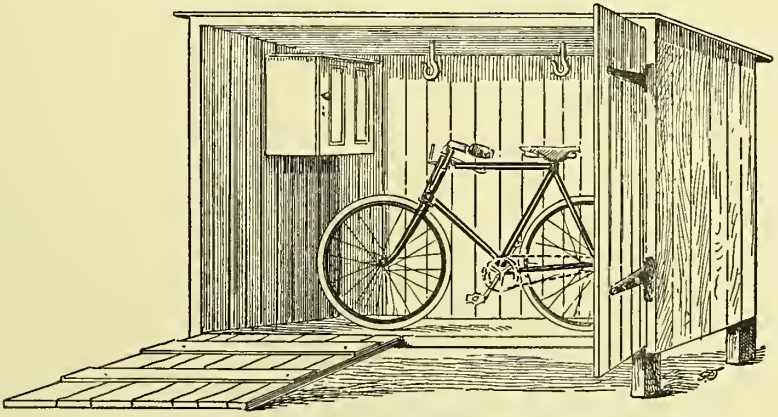


Fig. 498.—Bicycle Shed.

the hall after the ride is over is always in someone's way. A lady going through the passage gets her dress caught by the end of the projecting pedal and torn in a conspicuous place; or perhaps a careless servant, brushing quickly past the machine to open the door, just touches the handle-bar with her elbow and causes the bicycle to fall to the floor. To prevent accidents of this kind, it is requisite that some receptacle large enough comfortably to hold the machine should be provided; if out of doors, it should if possible be sufficiently large to enable the owner to clean the bicycle. These sheds cost £2 or £3 each, but can be made for much less if the rider is a handy man with tools. One must, however, see that the shed

is weather-proof; rain beating on to a machine presumably under cover causes much damage, for it is apt to be unnoticed and get into the bearings. A saddle, too, that has been wet is never so comfortable to ride again.

If there is room, a couple of hooks should be attached to the roof of the shed inside. These will be found useful to hang the cycle up by if it is not to be ridden for a month or two, as the tyres will thus be better preserved. When putting a machine by for any length of time, it is advisable to coat it well with vaseline, using care to prevent the vaseline from touching the rubber parts, such as the tyres, pedals, and the inside of the brake. This helps to preserve the enamel and plated parts.

A small locker to hold oil-can, spanners, wrenches, screw-drivers, a greasy and a polishing rag, lubricating and illuminating oils, spare nuts, and other odds and ends, will be found extremely useful, as everything pertaining to the bicycle may thus be kept in one place, and is always at hand when wanted. A little shelf for the lamp is convenient, for occasionally the oil oozes from the best reservoir if the lamp is left attached to the lamp-bracket, and drops on and eventually rots the front tyre. Of course, the door of every cycle shed should be provided with a good lock.

DOMESTIC PETS.

THE DOG.

Everyone who wishes to own a dog should know what to select, and how to manage upon rational lines the animal he has selected. Due consideration must of course be paid to the space available, the time that can be given to attend to its daily needs, its health, exercise and enjoyment, and the purposes for which it is required.

By far the greater number of dogs are kept as house-guards and companions. A dog required for such a purpose should not be large. A large dog costs more to purchase and to feed, while confinement within doors makes its life unbearable. The dog should be in good condition, of the right age, clean in skin, without vermin, fat, plump, lively and happy, a good feeder, and (if a puppy) with good, thin, small, semi-transparent teeth. These points are of universal application, no matter what kind may be selected.

The best guard dogs are bull-dogs, bull-terriers, mastiffs, Newfoundlands, and Great Danes; the most companionable, Newfoundlands, St. Bernards, Great Danes, collies, and setters; the best as pets, Blenheims, King Charles spaniels, Rubies, pugs, Yorkshire terriers, and Maltese; the most sagacious and teachable, poodles, Scotch collies, Newfoundlands, St. Bernards, and setters; the most useful, fox-terriers, spaniels, and retrievers.

DIFFERENT KINDS OF DOGS.

Bassett.—The bassett is a hound pure and simple. Its head is grand and impressive, with many of the blood-hound characteristics; ears of good length, curling inwards, and set on low; eyes dark, and deep set, showing the haw; body long, low, with powerful shoulders and quarters; legs very short with plenty of bone, the fore-legs crooked; stern carried gaily; colour black, white, and tan. Among noted bassetts may be mentioned Mr. W. White's "Foxglove" and "Festival", each valued at £1000.

Bull-dog.—Though perhaps not the most useful of dogs, the bull-dog is a great favourite with many. Its appearance may be somewhat awe-inspiring, yet it is noted for its even temper. It is, however, difficult to rear and to keep in health. The chief points of the bull-dog, as given by Mr. J. S. Pybus-Sellon, are as follows:—Thick set and compact; very heavy in front, but of comparatively lighter build behind; legs strong, short, muscular, and set outside the body; shoulders massive, and standing well

out; chest wide and deep; skull large; temples high, with "stop" well defined, eyes wide apart and black; under-jaw wide, and well turned up; nose large, black, very short, and good "lay back"; small "rose"-shaped ears; back short and "roached"; ribs well sprung; fine loin; tail short and set on low; coat fine, short, and close. The colour should be "whole".

Chow-chow.—At one time this species was much sought after, and even now it is very fashionable. Its chief points are:—Skull flat and wide; tongue and lips black; eyes small and dark; ears very small and pointed,

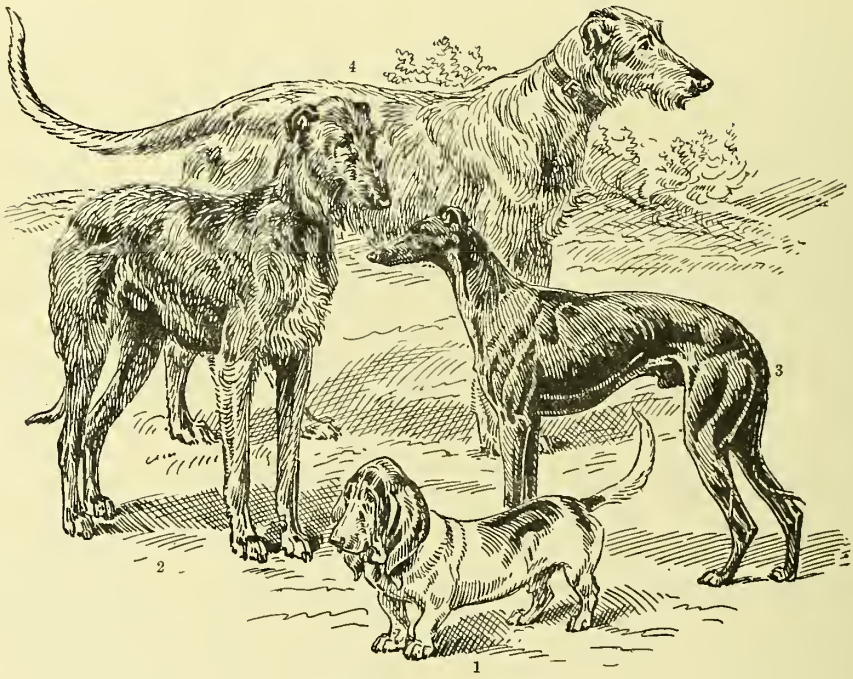


Fig. 499.—1, Bassett. 2, Deer-hound. 3, Greyhound. 4, Irish Wolf-hound.

carried erect and forward; chest wide and deep; body short and powerful; fore-legs straight and large, with small round feet; tail tightly curled over the back; coat very profuse and rather coarse in texture. The most common colours are black and red, but other shades are also correct if whole coloured.

Collie.—The collie is one of the greatest favourites with dog lovers. It is second on the list of popular dogs, being an admirable companion and highly intelligent. Its points are:—Head long; skull fairly wide, not too round; eyes dark and expressive, placed obliquely; ears small, set far back and high, when excited semi-erect with points hanging down and forward; chest deep, but not wide; fore-legs straight, strong, and hard; feet compact and strong, of fair size; soles well padded; hind-legs straight. In the rough variety, there should be thick undercoat with a coat of hard hair over; in the smooth kind, only the dense undercoat. Tail moderately long and

well-flagged, sweeping downwards two-thirds of its length, the remaining third curved beautifully backwards. The colour from the exhibition stand-point is immaterial.

Dachshund.—The dachshund is a difficult dog to break, as it is very nervous and high-spirited. It requires much exercise and very careful feeding. The principal points, as given by Mr. Mudie, are:—Head long and narrow; peak well developed; jaw strong and level; ears long, broad, and soft, and set on low; chest deep and narrow; breast-bone prominent; fore-legs very short and strong in bone, well crooked, but symmetrical; skin thick

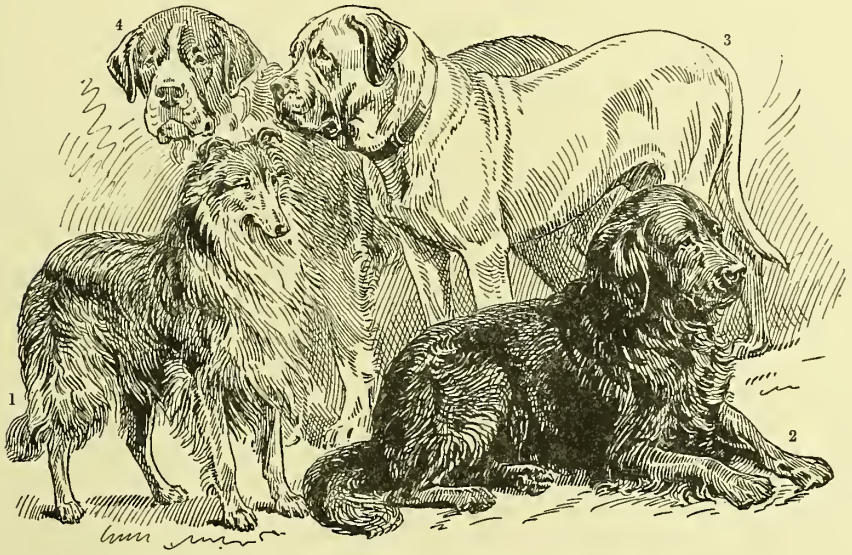


Fig. 500.—1, Collie. 2, Black Newfoundland. 3, Mastiff. 4, St. Bernard.

and supple; coat short and strong; loins well arched, long and muscular. Any colour. Miss Piggott's "Primula", valued at £100, may be mentioned as one of the most noted of this class.

Dandie Dinmont.—The Dandie Dinmont is equally at home in the house or out of doors. Its points are:—Head large and heavy-looking in proportion to its size; skull wide and covered with a top-knot of light silky hair, generally wavy; muzzle deep and moderately wide (it should on no account have a foxy appearance); jaws strong and teeth level; ears large, hanging close to the shoulders; eyes dark hazel; legs fairly straight; tail carried gaily: coat soft but not silky. The colour pepper or mustard. The weight should be under 24 pounds.

Deer-hound.—The head of the deer-hound should be long and narrow; the nose black and pointed; lips level; ears small, carried in a fold, soft and silky without long hair. The neck should be long and strong, with sloping shoulders and deep chest; the body long, and the loins arched with great breadth across the hips. The legs should be very straight. There should be everywhere plenty of bone. The coat should be rough and harsh

on the body, and ought to show no inclination to silkiness. The colour may be any shade, gray, brindle, yellow, fawn, dun, or drab. If, however, white markings occur in the chest and toes, they are considered objectionable. The right texture of the coat, as well as size and shape, are the chief points.

Greyhound.—In the greyhound, the head should be long and lean, with powerful, but not clumsy jaws; teeth very strong; eyes dark and full of fire; ears small and fine; neck long but graceful; chest fairly wide and deep. The body should be long and powerful at the loins, and well arched; fore-legs straight and powerful, with round feet resembling those of a cat, well knuckled up; tail long and carried low. Colour various, black, red, fawn, brindled, white, either whole coloured or marked. Winners have been black or black and white. Mrs. B. Downes' "The Chorus Girl", born August, 1894, of unknown pedigree, may be mentioned as one of the most noted greyhounds.

Mastiff.—When properly trained, the mastiff has no superior as a guard to person and property, but the training requires considerable tact. The head should be large and massive, skull flatly rounded; muzzle square and deep; teeth level; eyes dark brown or hazel, and wide apart; legs muscular and straight, with plenty of bone; chest deep and broad; loins broad and powerful, with a good flank; feet small, compact, and close; tail long, strong, and well set on; coat fine and close. Colour, brindled or fawn. The popular colour is the latter, with black points, such as muzzle, mask, and ears. Size is of no importance, so long as symmetry is maintained. A regulation measure is from 29 to 32 inches at the shoulder, weight from 120 to 170 pounds.

Newfoundland.—The Newfoundland should have the head very large and massive; skull flat; muzzle square; ears small, lying close to the head; legs straight; feet large; soles strong and well padded. The coat should be straight and dense; tail flagged, carried gaily, but not curled over, and the colour black, with sometimes a white star on the chest. The regulation size is from 27 inches at the shoulder and upwards; and the average weight 100 pounds for dogs and 85 pounds for bitches.

Pointer.—Pointers are divided into three classes—large, medium, and small—according to weight. For the large, the standard is 70 pounds; for the medium, 50 to 70; and for the small, under 50. The chief points are as follows:—Skull wide between the ears; head long from the eye to the nose; nose broad and square; eyes light or dark according to the general colour of the dog; ears fine, set on low, and clinging flat to the sides of head; neck long, sloping and gracefully arched; shoulders deep; chest fairly wide; body powerful and well ribbed; fore-legs straight and muscular, set in well under the dog; feet round and compact; tail broad at the base, tapering to a fine point. Colours various, lemon and white, black, and liver and white. The last is generally considered to accompany greater endurance. As one of the most noted dogs of this breed, Sir H. F. de Trafford's "Devonshire Dan" may be mentioned.

SOME TYPICAL DOGS

1, Chow; 2, Poodle Diamont; 3, Fox Terrier; 4, Yorkshire Terrier; 5, Irish Terrier; 6, Blenheim Spaniel; 7, King Charles' Spaniel; 8, Maltese Terrier;

Pomeranian.—For the pomeranian or spitz, the points, as given by the New Pomeranian Club, are as follows:—In general build, and especially in coat, the pomeranian should somewhat resemble the rough-coated collie, with the difference that his head should be shorter, ears smaller and carried perfectly erect, and his tail curled up from the root lightly over his back, or lying flat on the back. He must be a compact little dog, well proportioned in build, standing on straight limbs, and possessing a profuse coat of long and perfectly straight silky hair all over his body, forming a mane

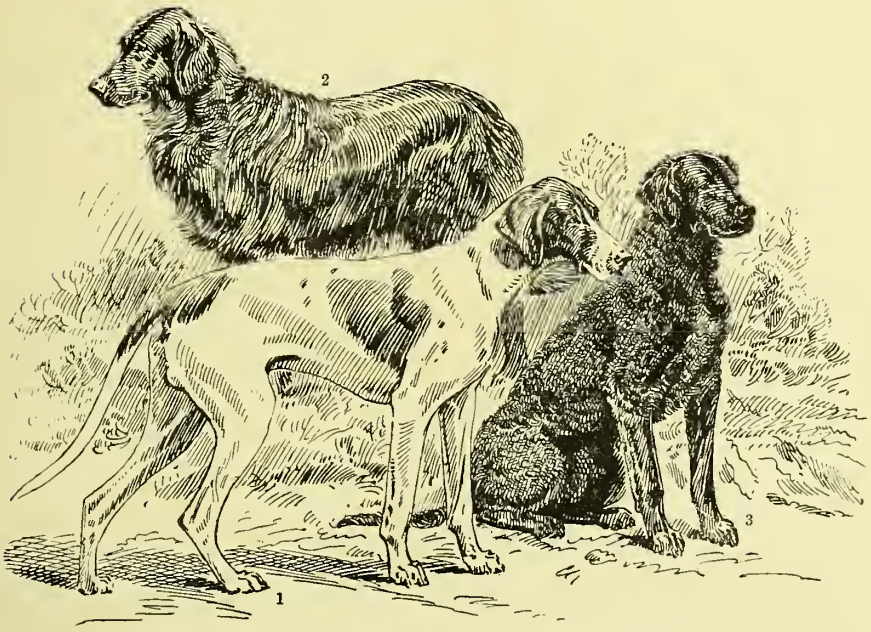


Fig. 501.—1, Pointer. 2, Retriever (flat-coated). 3, Retriever (curly-coated).

round his neck of longer hair, with the fore-legs feathered, and the thighs more heavily feathered. He must be sharp and intelligent in expression, and exhibit great activity and buoyancy of disposition, and should not exceed 20 pounds in weight, the smaller specimens being preferable. As to colour, there must be no white hairs in the black, while the white variety must be free from any tinge of lemon.

Poodle.—M. A. Dagois gives these points for the poodle:—Head long, straight, and fine; skull rather narrow and peaked at back; jaw long, strong, and fine; teeth white and level; lips black and rather tight-fitting: nose black and sharp; eyes almond-shaped, very dark brown, and full of fire and intelligence; ears, the leather long, and wide, hanging close to the face; neck of fair length; shoulders strong and muscular; back short, strong, and slightly curved; legs well set, straight from shoulders, with plenty of bone and muscle; feet small and round: pads thick and hard; tail set on rather high, and well carried, never curled or carried over the back. The coat is very profuse, and is of two kinds—corded and uncorded.

If corded, it hangs in light, even cords; if uncorded, it is very thick and strong, it must be of even length and free from knots. The hair is of a woolly texture. In colour, no mixture of any kind is admissible.

Pug.—The pug should have the head round and very large in proportion to the body; muzzle short and very broad; face cushioned and square; eyes large, dark, and set wide apart; ears small and thin, well set forward on face; mask and ears black. The head should be heavily wrinkled; neck short, thick, and muscular, with plenty of loose skin; body thick and square, with a black line along the centre of the back; legs short, straight, and strong; feet firm and well arched; tail curled tightly on hip, double or triple curl being considered correct. The coat should be short, soft, and glossy, but not woolly. Colour, fawn. Size, from 10 to 15 pounds. Small pugs are much preferred.

Retriever.—The retriever is a favourite dog on account of its sagacity and pluck. There are several kinds—the black curly-coated, the flat-coated, and the liver-coated, the first being taller and heavier than the other two. The general characteristics are as follows:—Head long; skull wide; ears small, close to the head, and generally covered with soft, glossy hair; eyes brown or hazel, very bright and expressive, showing great intelligence; jaws long and level; muzzle large, with full open nostrils; neck long but muscular; chest deep; shoulders strong and set obliquely; body long, with muscular loins; stifles fairly well bent; feet round and well arched; fore-legs straight, strong, and feathered. The coat should be close, long, and glossy, and the tail carried down. Colour, a beautiful jet black. No trace of white anywhere. White specimens are sometimes met with, but these are exceedingly rare.

St. Bernard.—There are two varieties of St. Bernards—the one rough-coated and the other smooth. They are not, however, distinct breeds. The chief points are:—Head very massive and large, showing great depth from eye to lower jaw; muzzle broad and square; lips hanging and loose; eyes dark in colour, very mild; ears small, lying well to the cheek; nose black, wide, and deep; legs very straight and of extraordinary strength, with great bone and muscle; feet large and compact; body long, broad, and straight, combined with perfect symmetry. The coat in the smooth variety should be close, thick, and broken-haired; in the rough-haired, dense and flat, of fair length, not woolly. Colour, red and white, orange and white, or brindle with white on chest and legs, a white collar, white blaze up face; or the body may be white with patches of the colours named. As regards size and weight, a St. Bernard should be as tall and as heavy as a mastiff.

Setter, Black-and-tan.—Black-and-tan setters were formerly known as Gordon setters, because the breed was connected with the Gordon Castle kennels. This variety is heavier than the English or Irish kind, showing more of the hound and less of the spaniel. In general appearance the body is the same, but the head is stronger, muzzle broader, lips much heavier, ears long, and the coat not so fine in texture. In colour, the

black should be even in hue, and the tan a rich mahogany red; the feathering of fore-legs and thighs should be tan, not black.

Setter, English.—The English setter should have a long and narrow head; muzzle long, square, and clean; nose large, with wide nostrils; ears lobe-shaped, set on low, of moderate length, fitting close to the head; eyes soft and intelligent, moderately large; neck fairly long and muscular; shoulders sloping; chest deep; back strong and muscular; loin broad and powerful; thighs well developed; stifles well bent; fore-legs straight and

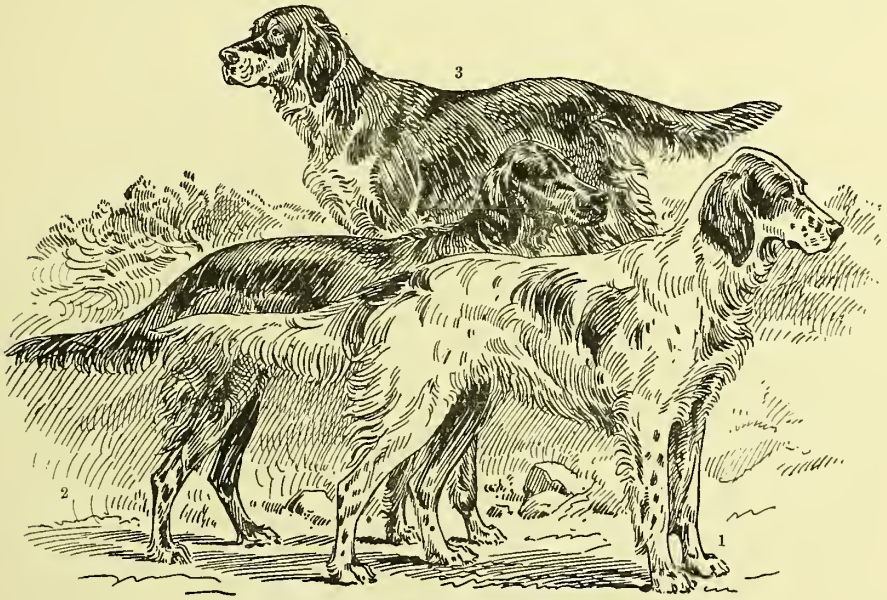


Fig. 502.—Setters. 1, English. 2, Irish. 3, Black-and-tan.

well feathered; feet close and compact, feathered between the toes; coat abundant, soft, and wavy, free from curl. The colour may be of any shade, except red or black-and-tan.

Setter, Irish.—The Irish setter is of a lighter build, and is more graceful in form than the English variety. Head long and narrow; muzzle square; ears fine, set low and lying well back; nose and eyes a rich hazel, the latter very soft and expressive; shoulders clean; chest deep; loin broad and muscular; coat very fine, of a rich, dark red, with a golden tinge. There should be no black or white except perhaps a small star on head or chest.

Spaniel, Clumber.—The clumber spaniel is a large, low, heavy, massive dog, with immense bone, and large head and forehead. Brows heavy, and eyes deeply set; muzzle well developed and very square, with a fair quantity of lip; ears small when compared with the size of the dog, and vine-shaped, hanging close to the face. The colour should not be red-and-white, but lemon-and-white, the latter predominant.

Spaniel, English Water.—The English water-spaniel is a fairly big

dog, with plenty of bone and muscle. Head long; muzzle well developed; ears long and bulky; coat closely curled, but not matted. A young dog may be taught to retrieve well, to work in silence, and act by signs.

Spaniel, Field.—The points of the field spaniel, as given by Mr. J. F. Farrow, should be:—Head long and lean, with a good length of muzzle, which must not be snipy, a short, coarse, and chumpy head being most objectionable. Eyes dark; ears set very low down, narrow where they leave the head, and long and lobe-shaped; body large, deep, long, and low; tail carried below the level of the back; legs straight, strong, short, and very large in bone; colour: black is the most fashionable, but the black-and-

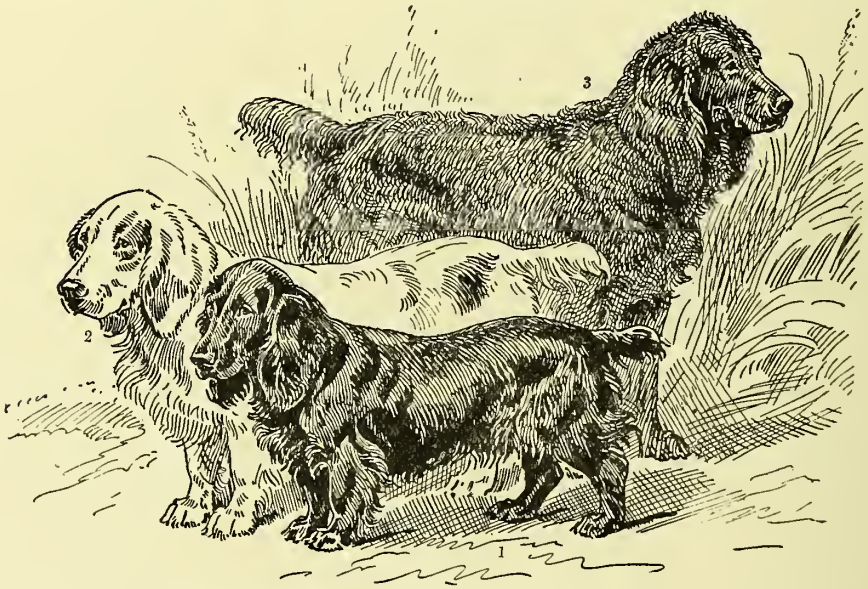


Fig. 503.—Spaniels. 1, Field. 2, Clumber. 3, English Water.

tan, liver-and-tan, liver-and-white, and pied specimens are very beautiful. Any resemblance in shape, action, or movement to the bassett hound or dachshund is regarded as a fault.

Spaniel, King Charles.—This breed originally came from Spain, about the time of Charles I.; hence the name. Among small dogs, the King Charles and the Blenheim are perhaps the two most popular breeds. The characteristic points of the former are as follows:—The skull large, either round or coned; muzzle short, blunt, and rather turned up; eyes large, liquid, and bulging; ears long and well feathered; neck of fair length; back short and compact; fore-legs short and quite straight; feet large; tail carried horizontally; coat very profuse, soft, silky, and free from curl; colours: black, white-and-tan, red, red-and-white. Its weight should be from 5 to 8 pounds.

Terrier, Airedale or **Waterside.**—Airedale terriers are rough-coated and shapely. Head long, with skull broad and flat, narrowing to the eyes,

but without wrinkle; jaw deep and strong; ears V-shaped; eyes small and dark, full of expression; neck of moderate length and thickness; chest deep, and of fair width; back short, strong, and straight; legs perfectly straight, with plenty of bone; feet small and round; coat should be hard and wiry; hair abundant, lying straight and close; the colour light orange, the upper portions of the body a dark gray. In weight they should be about 40 to 45 pounds.

Terrier, Black-and-Tan.—Black-and-tan terriers are sometimes known as Manchester terriers. The points are:—Head long and narrow; eyes small,

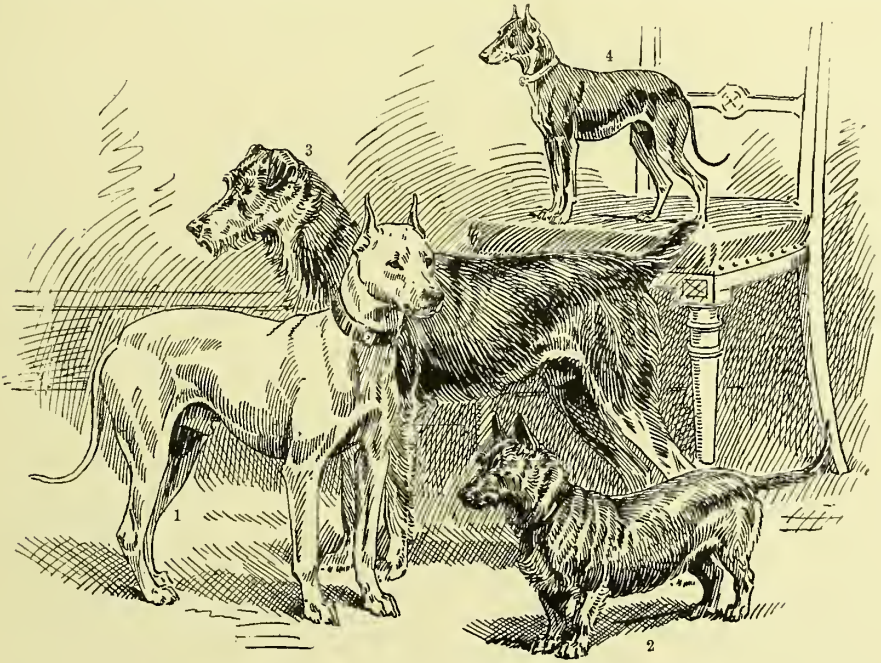


Fig. 504.—Terriers. 1, Bull. 2, Scotch. 3, Airedale. 4, Black-and-tan

black, and bright; ears small and thin, set close together at the top of the head; neck slim and graceful; shoulders sloping; chest narrow between the legs; legs perfectly straight, strong, and of proportionate length; feet compact, split between the toes; tail very fine, and carried straight; colour black, with tan marks along the jaws. This tan should be rich, and should meet the black abruptly. Spots and pencillings occur over the eye, and about the toes. The weight of a black-and-tan toy should not be more than 7 pounds. There is, however, a larger variety, scaling as much as 22 pounds.

Terrier, Bull.—The points of the bull terrier, as given by Mr. F. Fielding, are as follows:—Head long, level from skull to head of nose; strong jaw and level mouth; small dark eyes, not too prominent; broad chest; short body; fore-legs with plenty of bone and muscle, of medium length; strong and well-arched feet; hind-legs well hocked, showing great

strength: tail fine and straight, carried in line with back. Pure white is considered the best colour, but there are many brindled and patched dogs.

Terrier, Fox.—There are two kinds of fox-terriers—the smooth and the wire-haired. The points of the smooth fox-terrier are:—Head narrow, and rather long; jaws strong and level; nose black; eyes dark; ears small and shaped, and carried close to the cheeks; neck slightly arched; chest narrow, and rather deep; back short, straight, and strong; legs straight; feet round, not too large, but very compact; coat smooth, short, hard, and dense. White should predominate, liver or brindle markings are objectionable. The terrier generally ought not to be leggy, nor too short in the leg, but bone and strength are essential.

The wire-haired fox-terriers differ only in the coat, which should be very dense and wiry, about 2 inches in length.

Terrier, Irish.—Head long and narrow, skull flat; eyes small and dark; ears small and V-shaped, set well upon the head; nose black; teeth strong and level; neck of fair length; legs straight and strong; feet round and thick; back strong and thick; tail set rather high; coat very hard, wiry, and straight; colour yellowish red, darker on ears. Some Irish terriers are a bright red, and others gray, but in every case they should be whole-coloured, on no account white. "Lewisham Robin", belonging to Mr. F. Wheatley, valued at £100, may be mentioned as a noted Irish terrier.

Terrier, Maltese.—The Maltese terrier has really no distinguishing marks of the terrier about it. It is the oldest of our toy dogs. The head is so buried in hair that its shape is not easily manifest. Ears moderately long; nose black; body long; tail of good length, well feathered, and bent upwards over the back. The skin is of a pink colour. The coat should be fine in texture; hair silky, straight, and long; in first-class specimens it should sweep the ground. Colour of coat white. Weight ought not to exceed 6 pounds.

Terrier, Scotch.—Skull long, and slightly domed; muzzle powerful; nose black, and of large size; eyes dark brown, very bright, and piercing; ears small, prick or half-prick, never drooping; neck short and thick; body of moderate length; legs short, with plenty of bone; feet strong, small, and covered with short hair; tail carried with slight bend; coat short, hard, wiry, and very dense; colour black, sandy, steel or iron gray, brindle or grizzled, no white markings. Weight about 14 pounds.

Terrier, Skye.—Head long, with strong jaws; teeth also strong and level; eyes hazel; muzzle always black; ears prick or pendant, and when prick not large, but standing well up, or when pendant, larger and hanging straight; body very long and low; neck muscular and strong; tail short, and carried straight; legs short, straight, and strong; feet large, and pointing forward; coat double—the under-coat short, close, soft, and woolly, the over-coat straight, hard, and wiry, about 5½ inches in length. Colour dark or light blue, gray, or fawn, with black points.

Terrier, Yorkshire.—Head moderately long, and wedge-shaped; muzzle tapering; eyes very keen and intelligent; ears are always cut in show-dogs, and when this is the case they stand erect, but if uncut they should be V-shaped and semi-erect; nose jet black; teeth level; body short and compact; legs straight, and well-tanned; coat extremely long, with hair fine and glossy as silk, almost hiding the face; along the body it is parted in the centre of back, so that it hangs nearly to the ground on both sides. Colour on the body, steel blue, free from black or tan hairs; the tail should be feathered with dark-blue hair; the hair on the forehead should be of a light golden shade; while on the neck there should be a streak of rich bright tan. Size varies considerably. The correct weight is 5 or 6 pounds.

Whippet.—The whippet is a kind of small greyhound with a mixture of terrier blood. It is most common in the north of England. Its colour is black, white, brindle, fawn, and a mixture.

Wolf-hound, Irish.—The Irish wolf-hound is noted for its strength, stature, fleetness, agility, and intelligence. Coat hard and rough; face bearded; ears pricked at the roots; good neck; muscular shoulders; large cat-like feet; tail carried rather upward; colour various. "Kincaid", owned by Mr. G. E. Crisp, and valued at £1000, may be mentioned as one of the most celebrated dogs of this breed.

GENERAL MANAGEMENT OF DOGS.

For a dog that lives out of doors, a kennel is of course essential, and even for one that sleeps in the house it is best to have some definite place —a box or basket placed out of the way of draughts—to which it can retire for the night.

Kennels.—A kennel for ordinary use should have an outside floor slightly sloping, to enable the dog to recline when on chain. This floor should be so made that it may be removed at will. The roof should of course be water-tight. Unless it can be removed, one of the sides should be hinged for cleaning purposes, and also to allow of thorough airing. The kennel should have plenty of clean straw, as most dogs kept out of doors delight to nestle down amongst their bedding, especially during cold weather. If hay is used, it should be sprinkled with disinfectant occasionally, as it is apt to harbour insects. By means of short legs placed at each corner, the kennel may be kept free from damp which is likely to rise from the ground.

Bedding.—The kind of bedding used should depend upon the breed of dog kept. If Yorkshires, terriers, and poodles sleep on straw, their coats often suffer, but all short-haired dogs delight in it. As a summer bedding wheat straw forms an excellent lair, as does also saw-dust where the bench is properly constructed to carry it, but in winter oat straw is better. Many other materials are often used, but all things considered, straw is by far the best as a winter bedding.

Feeding Dogs.—A dog's meals should be given regularly, and the diet should be varied. It is a mistake to feed a dog always upon plain biscuit on the plea of preventing undue fatness. The dog is carnivorous, and for this reason should receive a certain allowance of meat as well as vegetables, varied with biscuits, rice, or bread, and occasionally fish. The quantity of meat requires, of course, to be regulated by the amount of exercise. Flesh food and idleness are the worst enemies of the domesticated dog. The ordinary dog biscuits are easily digested and for some dogs may be made the staple food, but care must be taken that the best are obtained, for inferior and improperly-made articles are offered for sale, having the meat only on the surface instead of its being incorporated with the farinaceous material of which the biscuit is mainly composed.

Very many dogs, however, get tired of biscuits, and, even when hungry, often refuse them whether given dry or soaked. In such cases the diet should be changed at once. One way of doing this is to make some broth or melt a little fat so as to cover the broken biscuit. Green vegetables, also, may be mixed with the food, as they help to keep the blood pure. Oatmeal porridge, with scraps from the table or with a little gravy, forms an excellent change.

Above all, pure water must be constantly at hand. Should the dog be chained for any length of time, let him have a bone; this will occupy as well as delight him.

Exercise.—Robust health without exercise is an impossible condition, both in respect to man and animals, and although idleness is not altogether inconsistent with the absence of active disease, it frequently participates in its development, and in no domestic animal is this the case more than in the dog. The life of indolence and ease permitted to many of our canine pets, combined as it generally is with luxurious living, is the direct cause of the most abiding and fatal ailments. The effect of muscular exercise is to increase the activity of the circulation, and by so doing to cause an abundant supply and frequent renewal of blood to the organs and tissues of the body. At the same time respiration is quickened, oxygen imbues the system, and by it the waste products of nutrition are burnt up into a condition in which they are capable of being removed, instead of accumulating in the body to impair and poison it. It is impossible to lay down any fixed rule as to the amount of exercise to be enforced. This will depend upon considerations as to age, the presence or absence of physical infirmity, constitution, &c.; but it may be said that adult animals in good bodily health should be compelled to take at least two hours' exercise daily —an hour in the morning and another in the afternoon. Leading dogs in chains is not the kind of activity here contemplated. They should be allowed their freedom to gallop and romp at their will, and be induced to do so by chasing a ball or stick, hunting a hedgerow, or by some other means of encouragement.

When considering exercise, some regard must be paid to feeding, and it should be a rule that the former be not allowed too soon after the latter.

In order to secure the full benefit which exercise confers on health, it must be systematically carried out, and regulated with due regard to age, constitution, and "condition". The dog, like the athlete, acquires muscular strength, robust health, and powers of endurance in proportion as the latter is developed.

GENERAL TREATMENT IN HEALTH.

Most dogs require washing, but if hard-haired dogs are subjected to too much of it, the coat is apt to soften. No more washing should be done than is absolutely necessary for cleanliness. Saw-dust will be found useful, and of great cleansing power. For white dogs periodical washing is indispensable. If the dog is very seldom washed, it should be well groomed as often as possible. This frees the coat of fleas and other parasites, besides keeping the skin in a healthy condition. Brush the dog in the direction of the lay of the hair, never immediately after a meal, but at the close of the day after exercise.

THE DOG IN SICKNESS.

The dog owner cannot, of course, be expected to diagnose every disease, but he should be able to recognize common ailments, and know how to deal with them, at least in the earlier stages. The list of ailments to which dogs are liable is a formidable one. Only the most common are mentioned here.

When a dog seems out of sorts, he should be at once removed from his fellows, for not only are quietness and comfort required for his restoration to health, but isolation may be the means of preventing the spread of contagion.

Asthma is a spasmodic condition of the bronchial tubes, more especially affecting old dogs which have been over-fed and allowed to lead a life of indolence. It comes on suddenly, and may pass away in a short time, to return again when provoked, and ultimately establishes itself as a continuous disease, varying in severity from time to time. Its chief symptom is a laboured and gasping breathing, in which the belly is forcibly drawn up with each expiration, while with each inspiration the nostrils are widely distended and the mouth opened.

It has its origin in a number and variety of causes not very apparent to the common observer.

Dogs so affected should receive a dose of castor-oil at the onset of the attack. Their diet should consist of milk and eggs or soup, with oatmeal or beef-tea, and brown bread, with either of which a little fish may be given.

The warmth of the skin should be maintained by rugs, and the patient should not be exposed to wet, or to cold winds, or to the extreme heat of a fire.

Canker of the Ear.—In this disease the lining membrane of the ear

is inflamed, and sometimes exhibits an eruption of small red pimples, and in bad cases, much thickening and ulceration of the part. Its presence is indicated by the dog frequently scratching the ear, shaking the head, and maybe carrying it on one side. A dark, dirty-looking discharge, from which an offensive odour is emitted, accumulates in the passage, and the outer skin of the ear is rendered sore by the constant scratching it undergoes.

Overfeeding, especially with an excess of flesh food, is the chief cause of the disease. It is also provoked by the frequent entrance of water into the ears, as in water-dogs, and the irritation caused by the accumulation of ear-wax. In other instances it forms part of a more or less general attack of eczema.

Treatment will consist in the administration of a dose of castor-oil every week or ten days, so long as the disease continues. The ears should be thoroughly cleansed with warm water twice a day, and then injected with a weak solution of carbolic acid, or sulphate of zinc, or alum; or each of these may be employed in succession.

A spare diet is most essential, and it is important that it be given in small quantities through the day. Plain biscuits, vegetables, and a little gravy, with which a few grains of carbonate of soda and a little malt flour are mixed, will form a suitable diet.

Chorea.—St. Vitus's Dance is a disease of the nervous system, characterized by sudden and involuntary contraction or twitching of the voluntary muscles.

With few exceptions, it is confined to young dogs between six months and two years old. It usually arises as a complication, or follows upon an attack of distemper. Less frequently it is due to intestinal parasites, and occasionally it is seen in young bitches as the result of excessive suckling.

When following distemper, chorea almost invariably assumes a chronic form.

The presence of chorea is made known by repeated jerky or spasmodic movements taking place in different parts of the body. It may be one fore-limb, or the head, or one hind-limb, or one side of the body, or the spasm may affect the entire trunk. It is sometimes so slight and restricted as to be for a time overlooked. In the severer cases the affected limb or part is seldom at rest, one jerk or spasm following another in rapid succession. It is only when the animal is asleep that the twitching ceases. There does not appear to be any acute suffering in chorea, and it is only in the worst cases that the general health suffers. Here the constant agitation and unrest lead to wasting and weakness, which may end in paralysis.

The treatment of chorea is seldom attended with satisfactory results, and especially in those cases following distemper. Where it is traceable to worms, removal of the parasites by a dose or two of vermifuge medicine, and subsequent good living, may arrest its progress. In those cases which occur in bitches when nursing, the puppies should be transferred to

a foster-mother, and the general health of the dam built up again by a generous allowance of good food, small repeated doses of citrate of iron and port-wine, gentle exercise, and care.

Cough.—This is not a disease, but may be produced by various causes, such as worms, catarrh, inflammation of the lungs, or sudden changes of temperature, producing cold and thereby affecting the respiratory organs. If the throat appears to be sore, soak a piece of flannel in hot water and place upon it a little turpentine liniment, binding it round the animal's throat.

Cramp.—Cramp is the result of over-exertion or exposure to damp. It usually attacks the hind-quarters. Place the dog in a hot bath for a short time, dry him well, and rub the parts affected briskly with the hand. Then apply a little soap liniment.

Diarrhœa.—Diarrhœa is another common ailment, generally due to injudicious feeding, or worms. In the latter case, see the treatment recommended for worms. In either case, a dose of castor-oil should be given. The diet should receive particular attention. It should consist solely of boiled rice, or corn-flour made into milk-puddings. If this simple treatment should not bring about recovery, a small dose of chlorodyne or of chalk mixture should be administered two or three times a day according to circumstances.

Distemper.—It used to be supposed that every dog must sooner or later have distemper, just as every child was expected to have measles or mumps or hooping-cough. As the result of this fallacy no precautions were taken to guard against infection, and in consequence the disease was at one time almost universal. Now that the malady is known to be contagious, it is recognized that no dog can contract it which is kept away from infected sources; not merely from other animals actually suffering from distemper, but also from places which they have occupied and things with which they have been brought into contact, as bedding, brushes, clothing, feeding utensils, &c. If danger is suspected, disinfectants should be used at once, and cleanliness in every respect should be strictly observed.

The most common form of distemper is the catarrhal, often mistaken in its early stages for an ordinary cold. Among the symptoms are fever, refusal of food, retching, vomiting, loss of flesh, a discharge from the eyes and nose, and sometimes, in severe cases, fits. A dog exhibiting these symptoms should be isolated at once, and a veterinary surgeon should be consulted.

In the case of milder attacks, simple remedies and common-sense treatment will effect a cure. The diet must be light and nutritious, such as meat-juice, milk, and mutton broth, poured over a small quantity of stale brown bread. Small repeated doses of port-wine or brandy will assist in upholding the strength, and when a slight improvement shows itself, minced lean beef may be given, and a little citrate of iron may be added to the wine.

Eczema.—This is an eruptive disease of the skin, mostly occurring in old dogs after a long period of luxurious living and obesity. It appears in the form of small red pimples, many of which are quickly resolved into minute vesicles or blisters, and discharge a sticky, watery, or matter-like fluid. It may be confined to the belly, elbows, or feet, or extend more or less over the entire body. It is attended with a good deal of irritation and scratching, by which the eruption is sometimes converted into extensive sores.

The chief cause of eczema is overfeeding and want of exercise. It is also induced by meat eaten in a state of decomposition, and by intestinal parasites.

Bitches during the period of lactation sometimes suffer from it, and it is a common result of chronic indigestion.

Dogs affected with eczema should be carefully fed. A diet of well-boiled oatmeal, with a little milk or gravy, or of ship-biscuits well soaked in boiling water and mixed with a good proportion of vegetable matter, forms the most suitable aliment. The skin should be thoroughly washed and dried at the outset, and the affected parts dressed with sulphur ointment, or zinc ointment, or a weak solution of oil of tar in glycerine. Where sores are produced by scratching they may be sprinkled over two or three times daily with dry sulphur. Where constipation exists, an aperient dose of Epsom salts now and again is desirable.

Epilepsy.—Epilepsy is a nervous disorder arising out of a morbid irritability of some part of the brain or spinal cord, or both. Owing to the sudden loss of consciousness, and convulsions, which mark its onset, it is usually spoken of as a fit. Puppies from three to twelve months old are most frequently its victims, although dogs of all ages are more or less liable to it.

The causes which give rise to epilepsy are many and various, but in the dog it most commonly appears as a complication of distemper, or as a result of the existence of parasites in the stomach or bowels.

Bitches when weakened and emaciated by protracted suckling, or by nursing a too large litter, sometimes suffer from it, and an attack may be provoked in susceptible subjects by fright, excitement, constipation of the bowels, and various forms of gastro-intestinal irritation. Epilepsy in its fitful character comes on suddenly, and mostly assumes a convulsive form. It varies in degree of severity in different cases, and also in the frequency and rapidity of its recurrence. In some the attack is very slight and transient, amounting to nothing more than a little unsteadiness of gait and muscular quivering, which is not repeated; while in others it assumes a most severe convulsive character, and recurs at longer or shorter intervals, sometimes with such rapidity as to form an almost continuous succession of attacks.

Epilepsy comes on without any warning; the dog suddenly loses consciousness, the muscles quiver, the eyes present a prominent staring appearance, the jaws are clenched, and he falls on his side. All the muscles of the

body are thrown into a state of spasm, the legs are extended in a rigid condition, or they are moved rapidly as in the act of running, the animal foams at the mouth, "champs" the jaws, the eyeballs roll from side to side, the breathing is hurried, and the entire frame is convulsed.

From this condition the dog may quickly rally, in which case the spasms subside, consciousness returns, the face wears a vacant stare, the animal rises to his feet, but moves with a weak, rolling gait, and shows marked signs of exhaustion. In some cases the fit is followed by epileptic mania, when, on rising, the patient rushes off at a gallop, foaming at the mouth, and after travelling some distance conceals himself in some outhouse, hedgerow, or other secluded spot, until consciousness is re-established. It is in this stage of the disease that epilepsy is liable to be mistaken for rabies.

There is little to be done in the way of treatment during the fit, beyond sprinkling the face with cold water. To prevent the dog's escape it may be desirable to secure him with a rope or collar and chain. Where epilepsy results from worms, the dog should receive a dose or two of vermifuge medicine; and in all cases, save those arising out of distemper, a dose of aperient medicine now and again will be of service in warding off the attacks.

This disease differs from rabies by the suddenness with which it comes on, and the rapidity with which the animal recovers.

Jaundice.—Jaundice is marked by a yellow discoloration of the skin, the lining membrane of the eyelids, and the mouth; hence it is commonly termed "The Yellows". It is the result of an accumulation of bile in the blood, arising from various forms of disease of the liver. Besides the altered colour of the superficial parts, the dog is dull, heavy, and listless, and has no desire to leave his bed. The bowels are irregular, being sometimes loose and at others constipated, and always offensive. The mouth is furred and clammy, and the breath is foul-smelling. Jaundice frequently arises in the course of distemper fever, and not unfrequently marks a fatal complication.

This is too serious an ailment to be dealt with by the amateur, and should receive prompt attention from a qualified veterinary surgeon. Pending his arrival a small dose of sulphate of magnesia may be given, and the dog placed in a warm, dry apartment, where he should be restricted to a liquid diet of milk or beef-tea.

Mange.—Mange is a parasitic disease, and highly contagious. Like other parasitic affections, it finds its readiest victims among dogs which are in bad condition. It is important, therefore, that attention should be given to the maintenance of a high standard of health, by insisting on cleanliness, exercise, and attention to diet.

The first noticeable symptom of mange is a violent and almost incessant scratching. Examination of the skin at this time reveals a number of small, red, angry-looking spots or minute pustules, which sooner or later are broken into sores by repeated scratching. In this way the body becomes

covered with a dark scabby eruption, the hair falls off, the skin emits an offensive odour, and the animal wastes, as a result of the state of unrest in which he is kept, and the constitutional disturbance arising out of it.

As mange, whether follicular or otherwise, is always difficult to eradicate, it is most desirable that the services of a veterinary surgeon be promptly obtained. Moreover, the measures necessary to prevent its spread need such care and experience as is seldom possessed by the amateur. In the absence of professional help the body must be thoroughly washed—using plenty of soap—and after being well dried, a dressing consisting of sulphur, train-oil, and oil of tar should be applied over the entire surface of the skin. This is to be washed off after the lapse of three days, and reapplied if the irritation continues. The floors and fittings of the kennel should be washed with boiling water, and then dressed with a strong solution of chloride of zinc or caustic soda.

Piles.—Piles are small, highly-vascular excrescences, formed by a gradually-increasing distention of the veins within and about the anus or posterior outlet of the bowel. They are mostly seen in old, overfed dogs, who have but little exercise, and occupy heated apartments. They are usually preceded by a period of constipation of the bowels, and in some cases may follow upon chronic diarrhœa.

The disease first attracts attention by blood-stained stools, straining, and more or less fulness around the anal opening. Irritation of the part is evinced by the animal drawing the quarters on the ground, as a result of which small sores appear, and may give rise to ulceration or abscess.

Treatment should be directed to maintain a steady and regular action of the bowels. For this purpose the diet should be spare, and comprise a good proportion of boiled vegetables—carrots, cabbage, or parsnips for preference. Sugar and sweets of all kinds must be prohibited. Brown bread, oatmeal, or ship-biscuits soaked in water, with the addition of a little gravy or soup, should form the staple food. A dose of castor-oil or compound rhubarb pill occasionally will prove beneficial, and daily exercise is indispensable.

Rabies.—Canine madness is a specific contagious disease communicable from dogs to man and to other animals. Its mode of spread is by inoculation. In the act of biting, the contagion contained in the saliva enters the wound and becomes disseminated over the system, ultimately to settle down in and exercise its disturbing action on the brain and spinal cord.

The disease assumes two forms—*dumb* rabies and *furious* rabies. The period of incubation is very variable. It may not be more than two or three weeks, or it may extend over several months, and, in exceptional cases, over a year.

The duration of the disease extends over three to five days, and invariably proves fatal.

The initial symptoms are recognized in some alteration in the temperament, disposition, or manner of the affected dog. He becomes at first

unsociable, listless, with a disposition to hide away in some remote corner. After a short period of dulness and unrest, the dog is noticed to "look strange" about the eyes, *i.e.* they present a glassy, staring appearance, and are directed restlessly towards every moving object. The lower lids have a tendency to droop, and expose the red and congested lining membrane. This gives the face a peculiar haggard look. Every now and then the attention of the dog is fixed upon some imaginary object, at which he rushes and snaps. At this time he is surly, vicious, and destructive, and if at liberty, will wander away and bite anything he may encounter, especially dogs. If on the chain, he attacks his kennel and gnaws it in pieces, or eats his bedding. If in the house, he may tear up the door-mat, the carpet, and in some instances a dog has been known to gnaw off his tail, and tear the skin and flesh of his legs. The mad dog has no desire for food, but will eat almost any kind of rubbish, hence the stomach is almost invariably found to contain some form of foreign matter, such as stick, straw, shavings, stones, &c. As the disease advances he emits a shrill, plaintive howl, which later becomes hoarse and croaking.

If the disease assumes the form of "dumb madness", the lower jaw drops and saliva drivels from the open mouth. With the progress of the disease, the hind quarters become paralysed, and after a succession of fits, more or less severe, the disease ends in delirium and death.

Dogs suspected of madness should, if possible, be placed in confinement on a chain; failing this, they should be shot. When any person or animal has been bitten, it is most desirable to adopt the former course until the case has developed decided symptoms of the disease. Many dogs are killed as mad, after biting some person or other dog, which are not the subjects of rabies at all, but are passing through the maniacal stage of an epileptic fit. A day or two on the chain in such cases would settle the question, and do away with that worry and anxiety of the person bitten, which invariably continues for months when the dog is destroyed and the matter is left in doubt.

Rheumatism.—This is a constitutional disease, usually affecting the limbs and loins. In the dog it mostly assumes a chronic character. Old animals, and especially sporting dogs, exposed to wet and cold, are particularly liable to it.

When the limbs are the seat of attack, the dog is indisposed to move. If induced to do so, he walks with a stiff or halting gait. The part affected is hot and painful to the touch, and may be more or less swollen. In lumbar rheumatism the animal's back is arched, the belly tucked up, and the body carried stiffly. If the loins are pressed, or an attempt be made to lift him up, he shrieks with pain. The pain and lameness vary considerably from day to day, being at one time slight and at another severe; or they may altogether disappear and reappear at varying intervals in the same or in another part of the body.

Rheumatism is hereditary, the exciting causes being exposure to wet and cold after being heated and fatigued, and living in damp kennels. In

house pets it is often provoked by exposure to cold and wet after occupying the hearth of a heated room, and excessive indulgence in sugar, sweet biscuits, and flesh food.

The treatment of rheumatism should be commenced by the administration of a dose of castor-oil or sulphate of magnesia, to be followed by small repeated doses of iodide of potassium or salicylate of soda. The food should consist chiefly of brown bread and well-boiled milk, with vegetables and a little soup or gravy. The affected part may be briskly rubbed with soap liniment once or twice a day, and the patient should be kept warm and free from draught.

Worms.—Tape-worms and ascarides are the most common parasites infesting the alimentary canal of the dog. Both enter the body by means of food and water contaminated with the eggs or embryos. When present, small white segments of the former, or the latter entire, are found now and again in the excrement. Dogs, when largely infested, fall away in flesh, the coat looks harsh and unthrifty, the belly becomes abnormally large, and the appetite is voracious. Occasional vomiting is sometimes excited, and in puppies epileptic fits are common as a result of the irritation they provoke in the stomach and bowels.

Various agents are employed in the expulsion of worms, of which arecanut, santonine, kousso, and kamala are the most efficient. Whichever is used, the dog should undergo a fast of twelve hours, and receive an aperient two hours after the vermifuge.

THE DOG IN TRAINING.

The training of dogs should begin as early as possible; even at the age of a few months much may be done.

One of the first things is to teach a dog to follow well, and to respond to both call and whistle. This at first requires patience and perseverance, and above all, kindness. If he once understands what he is to do, he will soon do it. Guarding house and property can easily be taught by placing some article by his side and telling him to watch. Of course at first he will move away from the object and follow, but he must be led back to the post and forbidden to stir, which he will soon understand. His master should go away out of sight for a short time, and if on his return the dog is at his post, he should be set free, the article taken up, and a reward given. This should be repeated as often as practicable, when it will soon be found that the lesson is learnt, and, when learnt, never forgotten.

Retrieving can be taught in the same way; the great point being to give easy tasks at first, and gradually to make them more difficult. The reward should always be given until the dog thoroughly understands. He should not be wearied by too long a lesson. The task should rather be made a pleasure.

Nearly every dog will take to the water if encouraged; he should never

be thrown in, as is often done by ignorant persons. The idea in teaching should be to retrieve not merely small articles, but also heavier bodies, so that, if occasion requires, life may be saved. Much may be done by the presence of a good water-dog, for animals are apt imitators, and will readily follow one of their own species into the water. Use small pieces of biscuit, and throw them at first into shallow water, so that they may be reached by wading; by degrees throw them to greater distances, and when these are retrieved show appreciation by reward and caress.

To teach a dog to dive, or to carry a rope, patience and perseverance will be necessary. Let the object be white in colour and heavy enough to sink. For first experiments still clear water must be chosen, and the depth may increase by degrees. The species best adapted for this work are retrievers, St. Bernards, and Newfoundlands. In order to teach the rescue of drowning persons, make of material that will float a figure resembling a human being. Take this figure out in a boat and cast it overboard, allowing the dog to see it from the shore or river bank. If he has been taught water-retrieving properly he will soon understand what is expected of him, and readily do it—almost of his own accord. On no account make the lesson long. After the animal has left the water let him have a good run, so that he may keep up the circulation and free himself from moisture. Before returning to the kennel he must be rubbed dry, for he should not remain wet. His ears should be examined, and dried if necessary. Dogs should never enter the water immediately after a heavy meal, nor at all if the weather is cold.

The best species for tricks are poodles, collies, pomeranians, terriers, and spaniels, in the order given. Larger breeds can often be taught, but the best tricksters are invariably the smaller species.

THE CAT.

It is only recently that puss has assumed her position as an indispensable member of all well-regulated households. The ancient Egyptians, however, were ardent admirers and worshippers of the feline race as far back as thirteen centuries B.C.; and from this source, not from the wild species as is popularly believed, is descended the domestic cat, "Felis Domesticus", which we know so well.

Within the past few years cats have been adopted as pets by eminent and distinguished individuals of all classes, and the great beauty and variety of the different breeds now in existence show how popular puss has become.

The cat "Felis Domesticus" is one of the Carnivora, or flesh-eating family, and belongs to the same order as the lion, tiger, &c. Like her larger relations she possesses great agility and grace of movement. If

puss be turned adrift in the woods she speedily adapts herself to her altered circumstances, and rapidly becomes fearless, wild, and ferocious; this is exemplified in the wild cats of our Highlands, which are so fierce that they will even attack a man.

The claws of the cat, like those of the tiger, are completely retractile, a sinew being attached to each nail; and it is owing to this fact, and the sharpness and shape of the claws, that the cat is enabled to climb trees. Its eye is peculiarly formed, enabling the cat to see both in daylight and in darkness; for the pupil, which appears during the day as an elliptical slit in the centre of the eye, becomes much enlarged or dilated at night, and occupies most of the space in front of the eye.

The cat has an inveterate hatred of water, and to see her crossing a muddy road, picking her way, and shaking her legs behind her at each step, is truly ludicrous.

Many people think that puss is wanting in intelligence, but numerous instances of sagacity are recorded. One of the most striking is that of a cat which by mishap got some paraffin-oil spilt over her, and, coming near the fire, accidentally became ignited. Immediately realizing the serious state of affairs, with great promptitude she rushed out of doors and plunged into a pool of water, thereby quenching the flames. With a little patience puss can be taught to do many tricks, such as begging, rolling over on the floor, jumping through hoops, &c.; and to anyone who has observed the loving care she takes of her young, it is quite evident that, although probably not so highly gifted as the dog, she yet possesses her fair share of intelligence. The maternal instincts of the cat are very strong, and she will defend her young to the death.

Cats become very much attached to places, and have been known to travel long distances to reach their native haunts.

Common Domestic Cat.—The common domestic cat has a coat of medium length, and may be of any colour. Although gray and black predominate, white, tortoise-shell, slate-coloured, brindled, and black and white, or gray and white, are also common. They vary greatly in size and weight.

Persian Cat.—The most beautiful variety we have is undoubtedly the Persian cat. The predominating feature of this breed is the long silky coat. Of this variety there are many colours, but the grays, blues, smokes, white, and cream-coloured, are most popular. The Duchess of Bedford's "Fritz" may be mentioned as a splendid example of this class.

A tailless breed of white Persians is also in existence, but specimens are extremely rare. They possess a tuft of long hair in place of the tail, but it is questionable if the alteration is an improvement, the beautiful bushy, silky tail being one of the chief characteristics of the Persians.

Siamese Cat.—The Siamese cat has lately been introduced to this country, and tends to gain in popularity. It is of a fawn colour, and, like the pug, its head and limbs are of a much darker hue than the body. It

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From photographs by Thos. Fall, Baker Street, London, W.

SOME TYPICAL CATS

1. Common Domestic Cat; 2. Blue-smoke Persian; 3. Persian; 4. Siamese.

has a small sharp head and beautiful blue eyes. In general appearance, shape, length of coat, &c., it closely resembles the common house cat.

Manx Cat.—The Manx or Isle of Man cat is distinguished by the shortness of its tail and the extreme length of its hind-legs. It is generally of a gray colour, and often beautifully striped.

In addition to the five varieties above-mentioned many others exist, but these are the most common.

The Care of the Cat.—In the wild state the cat is essentially carnivorous, living on birds, rabbits, rats, mice, and other small animals. Even in the domestic state she generally prefers flesh-meat, more especially fish, to any other diet; but this natural tendency should not be encouraged. Flesh is a highly stimulating food, and if combined with want of exercise is prone to lead to constitutional disturbance, terminating in skin eruptions, and subsequently eczema.

The cat should be fed twice a day, morning and evening. Porridge and milk, fish, bread and milk, milk, gravy and potatoes or bread mixed, milk-puddings, &c., are all suitable items of diet; but the pernicious habit of giving puss snacks of whatever is going at meal-times, especially pieces of cake, and bread soaked in tea, &c., is one that, in the interests of puss herself, cannot be too strongly condemned.

The cat does not require washing or grooming except for show purposes; she performs her own toilet with her tongue and fore-paws.

Breeding and Rearing of Cats.—The wild cat generally rears two litters of kittens in the year, and four or five in each litter is considered by her to be ample; not so the domestic varieties, with whom three or four litters annually of from six to nine kittens each are of common occurrence. The cat generally has her first brood when about a year old, and may breed regularly for eight or nine years.

It is injudicious to handle kittens until their eyes open, *i.e.* until they are from ten to fourteen days old; all that should be done during that period is to sustain the mother with nourishing food and plenty of sweet milk. Kittens may be weaned when a month old, but this depends upon their condition, size, and strength. When weaned, they should be fed for some weeks on a milk diet, but when over three months a little flesh-food or fish should be given in order to build up the various structures of the body, such as bone, muscle, &c. Like all other animals, the cat requires more food when it is actually growing than when fully developed.

Although naturally of strong physique and great vitality, the cat, by domestication and other causes, has now become more susceptible to disease. Puss as a rule makes an unsatisfactory patient; it is with difficulty she can be prevailed upon to take medicine in either fluid or pill form, and she generally resists all efforts at coercion, with claws and teeth. Some cats, however, are good patients, and seem to appreciate the efforts made for their benefit. Not a few of the ailments to which the cat is subject are induced or aggravated by injudicious care and

overfeeding practised by well-meaning but unwitting owners. How often do we hear the remark, "Oh, our cat will not touch porridge and milk, or skim-milk; she must have fish every day"! In reply to this the old saying "hunger is the best sauce" appears peculiarly applicable.

A few of the most common ailments to which the cat is liable are:—

Distemper. — This is a highly infectious disease, and may attack cats of any age and breed. If it once gains an entrance to a cattery it is a serious matter, the mortality from this disease being sometimes as high as 80 per cent.

The early symptoms are lassitude and dulness, disinclination for food, high temperature, and sickness; the later signs are catarrh of the head, resulting in the typical sneezing and discharge of purulent mucus from the nose and eyes, great prostration, and often diarrhœa of an obstinate nature. The disease generally runs its course in about three weeks, and death may occur from weakness or other complications, such as pneumonia or inflammation of the bowels. There are two forms of distemper, the virulent and the mild. The disease is often contracted at shows and other public places.

Treatment.—Sustain with nourishing foods — beef-tea, raw or boiled fish, bovril, brandy and milk, &c. Steam the cat's head three times a day with a sponge and hot water, and add a few drops of oil of eucalyptus. Careful nursing is all-essential, and tonic medicine, such as quinine, iron, cod-liver oil, &c., are beneficial.

Any complications which may arise should be attended to at once.

Influenza is very similar to distemper, but is not so virulent. The treatment is on the same principles. Frequently it requires the skilled veterinarian to differentiate between the two diseases. It has been suggested that influenza can be communicated from cat to man, and *vice versa*, but so far investigations do not support this theory.

It has, however, been experimentally demonstrated that distemper in the dog and the cat is analogous, and can be communicated from the one to the other.

Eczema.—This is a constitutional disease, and often occurs as a result of too much stimulating food and want of exercise.

Symptoms are: irritation of skin in parts of the body and consequent scratching; small pimples appear, which run together and form areas about the size of a shilling; liquid oozes from these, and the hair drops off, exposing the raw, irritated, and inflamed surface.

Treatment.—Clip the hair from the surrounding part, apply soothing ointment, feed on milk diet, and give preparations of arsenic and iron, and laxatives.

This disease tends to recur, and is often of an obstinate or incurable nature, especially in old cats. It is not infectious.

Catarrh, or cold, is of frequent occurrence. The cat is fond of heat, and will lie for hours in front of the fire. Open windows and draughts are the most common causes of catarrh.

Symptoms.—Sneezing and discharge from eyes and nose, commonly accompanied by sore throat and difficulty in swallowing.

Treatment.—Keep in the house in some place in which the temperature is uniform, steam the head if the discharge is profuse, if the throat is affected apply stimulating liniments and wrap it in flannel or lint. Colds, if neglected, may result in pneumonia, pleurisy, tuberculosis, &c., as in the human subject.

Tuberculosis or Consumption is more common than is popularly supposed. Persian cats appear more susceptible than other varieties.

Symptoms depend on whether the lungs or the bowels are the seat of the disease. If the lungs are affected, the presence and nature of the disease are generally shown by catarrh, sneezing, and discharge from nose and eyes, difficulty in breathing, fever, progressive emaciation, and death from weakness; if in the bowels, obstinate diarrhœa and wasting.

Consumption may be communicated from the human subject to the cat and dog, or *vice versa*, and this fact is important when we recollect how fond children are of caressing cats.

Treatment.—Little can be done, and it is often very difficult to distinguish between simple catarrh or cold and tuberculosis in the early stages of the disease.

Numerous other diseases attack the cat, such as inflammation of the bowels, lungs, or other organs, and skin affections, such as mange and ringworm. Worms in the stomach or bowels are of frequent occurrence.

Cats often meet with accidents resulting in fractured limbs, and it is interesting to know that if attended to immediately (provided the bone is not severely shattered) and the leg set in plaster of Paris, the results are highly satisfactory as a rule; lameness gradually passes off, and the animal regains the perfect use of the limb.

CAGE BIRDS.

No pets are more general in the homes of the people of the British Isles than cage birds. One of our greatest statesmen said that the presence of a canary in the window of a house was evidence of refinement of character and kindliness of heart in the occupants. True though this be, it is astonishing how few out of the many thousands of people who keep cage birds as pets know how to treat them properly, and every year thousands of charming little songsters come to an untimely end, owing to the ignorance and mistaken kindness of their owners. Strange though it may seem, many sacrifice their pets because they do not in the first place consider what kind of bird is best suited to their environment. It is quite evident, for instance, that large birds like Magpies, Jays, Blackbirds, Thrushes, and Starlings will not thrive in places where there is only sufficient accommo-

dation for such birds as Canaries, Goldfinches, or Linnets. The question is often asked, What is a cage bird? It seems simple enough, and yet many people make pets of birds which are altogether unsuited for confinement.

CANARIES.

Canaries are by far the most popular of the feathered pets kept in this country. From the palace to the cottage, from the drawing-room to the cellar-kitchen, they are loved and valued; and it is not to be wondered at. Many and many a life which has been on the point of slipping across the unknown line owing to melancholy and sadness has been preserved by the ray of hope and brightness contained in the song of a canary. And how often does the bed-ridden sufferer find comfort and solace in the same joyous note! No one can tell what this world owes to its song-birds.

Of canaries there are many kinds, and we will endeavour here to give the general reader an idea as to their distinctive merits and attractive qualities.

The Yorkshire.—This bird is by far the most distinguished-looking member of the canary family. He is tall of stature, very slim in structure, and immaculately clothed in a coat of the tightest and finest quality. It is said that the Yorkshire should be slim enough to go through a lady's wedding-ring. This variety is most extensively bred in the county from which it takes its name. Bradford is the great centre, and in the city and its suburbs are to be found thousands of breeders of these charming birds. These men are for the most part engaged in the great woollen industry of the district during the day, and spend their evenings amongst their pets, which to them are in many cases what the pig is to the Irish cotter—"the gintleman as pays the rint".

The Lancashire.—This is the giant of the canary tribe, first-class specimens often measuring as much as seven and a half or eight inches in length. It is a fine bold, upstanding bird, broad in the head and firm in the shoulders, its whole appearance being that of strength and massiveness.

There are plain-headed Lancashires, and those with coppies or turn-crowns; the coppy being a kind of crest. In breeding, the birds are paired, not plainhead to plainhead and coppy to coppy, but plainhead to coppy and coppy to plainhead. By this means the symmetry of the coppy is maintained; whereas if opposite lines were followed the birds' heads would become disfigured by ugly malformed coppies, and also by sore ulcerated patches. It is a curious fact that the continued pairing of coppies to each other produces running sores on the skull, and utterly destroys the arrangement of the crest or coppy feathers, which should fall away from the centre of the skull in the form of a daisy.

SOME TYPICAL CAGE-BIRDS

CANARIES. 1, Yorkshire; 2, Norwich; 3, Crested. FINCHES. 4, Goldfinch; 5, Chaffinch; 6, Zebra Finch.

The Scots Fancy.—Many are the changes which have been wrought in this variety by the enterprise of breeders. Some twelve or fifteen years ago the Scots Fancy was a small slim bird, curved like a half-moon. To-day he is a big, fine, bold fellow, who stands well up on his perch, which he grasps firmly, draws up his high broad shoulders, throws out his head snake-like on a long fine neck, and brings his tail down under his perch as though it were a bit of whalebone. To the non-fancier the bird which emanates from the land of Burns is far from beautiful, and the taste for Scots Fancies, like that for tomatoes, has to be acquired.

The Belgian.—So named from the little state on the other side of the English Channel, from which it first emanated, and where it is to-day bred in large numbers, especially in Antwerp and Ghent. It is something like the Scots Fancy in contour, in fact there is little difference between the two to-day, except that the Scot brings his tail, or should do so, under the perch, whilst the Belgian should hang his in a perpendicular line with his shoulder and body. The Scots Fancy of to-day is practically composed of seventy-five per cent Belgian, and twenty-five per cent of the old Glasgow Don blood. The Belgian is a very intelligent bird, and its breeding in the British Isles is in the hands of a very select coterie. It is not generally accounted a strong bird, and this fact greatly militates against its popularity.

The Norwich, as its name implies, is closely connected with the eastern city whose name it bears. It is said that there are in that city alone 4000 breeders, whilst other great centres in which this bird is bred are Northampton, Coventry, Nottingham, Preston, Plymouth, and Aberdeen.

The Norwich is undoubtedly the most popular breed of canary. It is a robust, hardy variety, neat and smart in appearance, being about six inches long, resembling the robin in shape, and carrying more colour than any other breed. Its great features are its chubby appearance, its rich orange-like colour, and tight silky coat.

The Lizard.—This is one of the oldest varieties known, but, sad to relate, it is not very popular, although it is still one of the most beautiful. It is rather smaller than the Norwich; its ground colour is of a dark hue, its beak, legs, and claws are black; it has a clear yellow cap, and its back is spotted or spangled, like the reptile from which it takes its name.

The chief reason why it is not popular is because its beautifully spangled back does not last longer than one season, its glory fading away more and more with each successive moult after the first.

The Border.—This is the smallest member of the canary family, and in appearance is something between a diminutive Yorkshire and a Norwich. It is a smart, perky little bird, and is extensively bred in Cumberland, Westmoreland, Berwickshire, Selkirkshire, and Dumfriesshire. Carriage of body and beautiful silky feathers are leading characteristics

of the breed, and anyone wishing a bright, vivacious little pet should secure a canary of this kind.

The Crest.—This is quite the aristocrat of canarydom, and most fabulous prices are paid year by year for good specimens. Some time ago the great Norwich breeders, Messrs. Mackley, sold a bird known as the King of Champions for £70, whilst such figures as £25 and £30 are common every year. In body the Crest is rather larger than the Norwich, but, as its name indicates, its one great feature is its crest or turncrown. The headgear of the Crest differs from that of the Lancashire Coppy, inasmuch as the former must fall away from the centre and droop well all round the head, but the latter must finish just behind the eye, and the back of the skull must be plain. In this variety, as in the Lancashire, there are the crested and crested-bred birds, and they are paired in the manner described in the notes on the Lancashire.

The Cinnamon.—So named because of its likeness in colour to the ordinary cinnamon spice. In shape the Cinnamon is like the Norwich, in fact it may for all practical purposes be said to be a Norwich, but of a dun or chocolate colour. It is a widely-cultivated variety, and one which appeals strongly to the breeder of cultivated taste.

The German.—This is the great songster of the world. For years canary breeders in Germany have been breeding canaries for song, and beautifully mellow voices the little birds have. The finest vocalists come from the Hartz Mountain district, where something like 50,000 of these birds are reared, trained, and exported every season. The one great drawback to the German canary is that it is not robust, and quite ninety per cent of those imported die before they have been in England eighteen months.

GENERAL MANAGEMENT OF CANARIES.

Food and Water.—The food for an ordinary pet canary is canary-seed and summer-rape, that is, the small red rape, with occasionally a pinch of maw, inga, or hemp seed. Green food such as water-cress, groundsel, and chickweed should be given three or four times a week, but care must be exercised to see that it is not frosty, or diarrhœa will result.

Fresh water must be given every morning, and in warm weather should be renewed in the afternoon. A bath should be given about twice a week. During the moult a rusty nail should be placed in the drinking water, and a little sulphate of iron, about the size of a pea, every other day.

The Cage.—The cage for a song-bird ought never to be less than fifteen inches long and nine or ten inches wide, height in proportion. Thousands of birds die every year through being confined in small cages. A bird must have room in which to exercise his wings, or he will soon die of consumption or asthma.

Diseases.—It is of little use for the ordinary individual to attempt to doctor canaries; their lives hang on too fine a balance, so fine that even the expert has to be exceedingly careful in his treatment. Still, there are one or two minor complaints which it is possible for a mere novice or amateur to cure. The huskiness which often affects canaries, especially during the moult, can be cured by mixing ten drops each of glycerine and whisky to a wine-glassful of water every morning, and giving it in place of the ordinary drinking water. Diarrhœa in its early stages can be cured by giving the bird weak brandy and water to drink, or a little powdered chalk mixed with some hard-boiled yolk of egg to eat.

OTHER CAGE BIRDS.

British Birds.—These as household pets are divided into two classes —the Finches and Soft Bills. Amongst the former are the Goldfinch, Chaffinch, Bullfinch, Linnet, Redpole, and Siskin. The last-named are not of much value as songsters, but are capable of being trained to perform a variety of tricks, such as drawing their seed and water from a well, ringing bells, &c.

The Goldfinch is not only the most gaily-attired of the Finches, but he is also the best songster; and, engaging as he is by reason of his rich, cheery face, his lovely white cheeks, russet-brown back, golden wing-bars, and nice white moons, he is no less charming in the power of his song.

The Linnet, although more soberly attired in a suit of dark-brown, with dark markings and pencillings, runs the Goldfinch very hard as a vocalist. His song is not quite so loud or so bright, but has a subdued quietness and softness which is peculiarly pleasing.

The Chaffinch, although not naturally a great singer, is capable of being trained; and in the East-end of London week by week chaffinch singing contests are decided, the birds being trained under good songsters. As a pet the Chaffinch is most interesting, being very bright and engaging in its manner.

The Bullfinch. — Unless specially trained to pipe, the Bullfinch has very little song, but when once his voice is properly developed there is no bird that can compete with Master Bullie. It is not unusual for as much as £10 to be paid for a good piping Bullfinch.

Treatment.—The general treatment of the British Finches differs little from that of the Canary, except that they enjoy, and should be given, thistle and teasel seed twice or thrice a week.

The Soft Bills.—Here we find the most charming songsters, but, alas, some of them are quite incapable of being kept except by the expert. The Nightingale, Blackcap, and other warblers require very careful treatment, and one needs to serve an apprenticeship in the care of the hardier birds before venturing upon keeping these gems of the musical world.

The Skylark.—This is the most popular, the hardiest, and most easily managed of the Soft Bills, whilst its song is simply delightful. For those who have no practical knowledge of the treatment of birds we would say, give your Lark a green turf twice a week, a clean, fresh-sanded cage every other day, one or other of the advertised lark foods, and clean, fresh water daily, and two or three times a week a few ants' eggs or meal-worms.

The Blackbird and Thrush.—It is useless to keep either of these charming songsters unless you can give him a good roomy cage, and can find time to clean the cage out every day. These well-known pets can only be induced to sing when they are kept scrupulously clean. Besides a large, roomy, well-sanded cage, they should be given plenty of fresh water for drinking and bathing, and be liberally supplied with shredded raw meat, worms, slugs, and snails. In giving them snails, it should not be forgotten that a large stone is useful to the birds in assisting them to smash the shell. The best staple food for these birds is the soft-billed food sold by most corn-chandlers.

With regard to management, what suits the Blackbird and Thrush will also suit the Starling. These spotted beauties are not of much account as vocalists, but by careful tuition they may be made efficient linguists.

Magpies, Jackdaws, and Jays.—These birds, if confined in cages, must be provided with plenty of room. A cage should not be less than three feet long, two in depth from back to front, and three feet high, especially for a Magpie; for the Jackdaw and Jay, it might be a trifle less in height. These birds make engaging pets for those who have the time and leisure to teach them to talk. Their treatment is similar to that prescribed for the Blackbirds, Thrushes, and Starlings, although it must not be forgotten that they appreciate the luxury of picking a bone.

Foreign Birds.—To deal fully with the many hundreds of foreign birds which are imported into England every year would require a volume of itself, and a large one too. We can only touch briefly upon the birds most generally known, amongst which are the Gouldian, Cuban, Grass, Red-headed, Ribbon, Parson, Banded, Chestnut, Nonpareil, Zebra, Indigo, and other Finches; the Weavers, the Mannikins, the Waxbills, Love Birds, Cardinals, &c.; all of which are easily kept if given plenty of cage room, and provided with canary and millet seed, fresh water daily, and clean gravelly sand twice or three times a week. The Parrots, Parrakeets, Lories, Cockateels, and Cockatoos, when first imported, should not be allowed to drink, but should be fed on the parrot mixtures which corn-chandlers supply, and maize boiled in milk. This must be given in small quantities, and none should be allowed to remain in the cages to become stale. When the birds have been six or eight months in England, they may be given water to drink, but it is always wise to boil it before giving it to them. Parrots also require a large amount of

grit or gravel; most bird-dealers and corn-chandlers stock parrot gravel nowadays, and lovers of these birds should see that their pets have always some in their tins.

The rarer kinds of foreign birds, such as Tanagers, Spectacle Birds, Robins, Bul Buls, Shamas, Sugar Birds, Honeyeaters, Starlings, and Mynahs, should not be kept by anyone inexperienced in the treatment of birds, as they are very delicate, and soon die if not fed and treated properly.

HOME OCCUPATIONS FOR PROFIT.

ART WORK.

Minor arts can be practised for profit with the object either of teaching others, or of selling the articles made. Of the two, the latter is usually the more remunerative when an opening can be found, but this is not always easy. There are so many excellent instruction-books for such details of any handicraft as can be taught that private lessons are useful to amateurs chiefly as supplementary to these books in the more difficult branches of the work.

The class-teaching of those who intend afterwards to make money by what they have learned is more important. The pupils may be students at some technical or general school, or at a philanthropic institution; they may be artisans of all ages, meeting in some club-room for tuition in spare hours; or they may come from various ranks. The instructor is paid either a fixed sum by the governing body of the institution, or so much for each pupil. In the case of privately-arranged classes the remuneration is subscribed by the members. The post of teacher is suited only to those who have, in addition to business capacities and technical knowledge, a special aptitude for imparting information; in this the most skilful practical workers are frequently wanting.

For either teacher or worker, the first step towards success is a complete training. Much practice is necessary to transform the *dilettante* amateur into the earnest professional. A certain amount of capital must be sunk in any proposed pursuit; in the present case it should first be expended on the best lessons obtainable, as well as on good tools and reliable hand-books. There is, of course, the extreme to be avoided of investing largely in costly tools and appliances before having given proof of sufficient aptitude for the work to warrant the expenditure. Many persons have frequently to manage with a few essential accessories, gradually adding others as more elaborate work requires their use. It should not be forgotten that while some of the minor arts are chiefly mechanical in character, others—such as wood-carving and modelling, for example—offer scope for the exercise of a high degree of skill.

A thoroughly competent person, experienced, self-reliant, and able to wait long for satisfactory returns, may start by opening a show-room for small wares in a suitable locality, and in the end may work up a large business. At the same time it is wiser to let such an undertaking grow

gradually, and to commence by showing specimens to influential friends, wholesale firms, and shopkeepers. The shopkeepers may consent to exhibit the goods on sale or return, and to take orders; larger firms, especially those selling art materials, frequently give orders for such work as pleases them. Occasionally they purchase a single article as a model, even when it is not specially well executed, if the idea is original and striking. They usually employ a staff of trained outdoor and indoor assistants, who are sure of fairly remunerative, though sometimes intermittent, employment. Many art schools offer work to their pupils when proficient, and numerous institutions, partly or wholly charitable, exhibit art work, or take orders on commission, or on payment of a subscription.

For names and addresses of depots where art work is taught and sold under various conditions, reference should be made to the article entitled "Fancy-Work" (p. 335). Many of the schools and guilds there named have a department devoted to minor arts. Thus, the Artists' Guild is in connection with the Royal School of Art Needle-work, Kensington, and the Chiswick Art Workers' Guild is allied with the School of Arts and Crafts at 115 Gloucester Road, S.W.

A worker desirous of selling wares must watch the announcements of sales or exhibitions of art work. Many local horticultural and other societies devote a section of their exhibitions to this purpose. Even if no immediate success is won, the name of the worker is brought forward in connection with the articles shown, and this, in a small way, is an excellent advertisement, often leading to better things.

Repeated advertisements are the best means of promoting the sale of every class of article, and if skilfully worded, yet truthful, will repay surely, though slowly. The public must have necessaries, and will have luxuries and novelties not easily made by themselves, and an ingenious inventor who can steadily "push" a constant succession is sure to do well.

Apart from finished specimens, a good deal may be made by the sale of articles begun, with the materials for their completion. Amateurs dislike trouble, and prefer pretty made-up knick-knacks to which they can easily add the decoration. A professional, with all the tools and appliances at hand, can do the rough work on a dozen articles in the time that it would take an amateur to prepare one.

The preparation of various media and accessories will also be found profitable. Paste, glue, varnish, stains, and paints for the manipulation of metal, glass, or textile fabrics—these are but a few of the things that are needed. Professionals working on a large scale find the advantage of purchasing the ingredients separately and combining them as required, but most amateurs prefer to have them ready mixed. When an article is produced differing from any hitherto in the market, and suitable for some specific purpose, the public soon acknowledge its utility and, if it also saves them labour, gladly pay the price asked. With the increasing demand larger quantities can be prepared, costing less in proportion, but selling

for the same sum as at first. The sale of these specialities is not to be confused with that of tools or materials purchased wholesale and afterwards retailed, the latter being merely a trade matter, whereas the making of artistic accessories entails some knowledge of chemistry and other sciences.

It must be admitted that the gains of the average home-worker are not large. An amateur with neither long nor regular hours to devote to a craft, nor a fitted work-room in which to exercise it, can do little in competition with professionals possessed of every advantage, and able to give their whole energies to the work. If only for this reason, it is best to take up some speciality and to keep to it, at any rate for a time. Still, many of the minor arts are so closely allied that a person who is proficient in one has gone a very long way to attaining proficiency in others. By a combination of two or three branches a worker's resources are materially increased. Home art work, especially in its higher forms, is more generally saleable and more varied than fancy needle-work. Almost any woman is more or less skilled in the latter, but as yet only a few have taken up any minor art in earnest.

BEE-KEEPING.

No employment lends itself more readily to home management than bee-keeping. The care of an apiary is well within the scope of a woman's work, the labour being light; but careful attention to detail and constant supervision are essential to success.

At the same time, to pretend that large and certain incomes can be made by bee-culture would be absurd; the variable climate of the British Isles has to be reckoned with, and a cold late spring or wet summer causes a sad deficit in the honey yield. Still, taking one year with another, and considering that the initial outlay is but small, and that the stock increases rapidly, bee-farming may be recommended as a means of adding to small incomes.

Honey, too, becomes yearly more popular as a food, and a local market is rarely lacking for first-class honey, carefully put up in attractive sections, or run into clear glass bottles. In large towns tradespeople readily purchase it, if they are satisfied that the quality is good and the price reasonable. Bees'-wax, again, is easily sold, and many chemists will deal in honey, if the latter is of fine quality and thoroughly ripe before extraction.

It is also an accepted fact that for the orchard, bees are valuable fertilizing agents, and the difference in the fruit harvest is very perceptible where the blossoms lack the visits of these tiny, fairy brownies.

The Profits of Bee-keeping.—In favourable seasons a strong hive should bring in from £1, 10*s.* to £2 profit at least, and if the bees are fed with syrup in the early spring the cost is well repaid by the increased

honey harvest. The stronger the colony the greater their activity, and the more honey they gather. Fifty pounds per hive may be taken as a fair average weight, though it is frequently exceeded in good seasons.

How to Start Bee-keeping.—To commence bee-keeping under the best conditions, swarms should be ordered early in the year. Two, or at most three, hives are enough for a beginner to start with, and either pure Italian or Carniolan bees are most suitable, being quieter to handle and less disposed to sting than the ordinary brown bees of this country. A good swarm of Italians or Carniolans should weigh from 4 to 5 lbs., and would cost 15*s.* to 20*s.* each, while swarms of the "ordinary" kind may be had for 10*s.* to 12*s.* Healthy swarms, headed by young prolific queens, located in new hives of modern type, are far preferable to old stocks, as the latter may contain black, misshapen combs difficult to manipulate, besides being at times weak in bees, or perhaps diseased, in which case they would be dear as a gift.

Straw skeps are seldom used now; they have been superseded by the wooden hive with movable frames in which the combs are built, and which may be lifted out for inspection when necessary with but little disturbance to the bees. Fig. 505 illustrates a well-known hive of modern type, with the several parts raised in order to show the construction of each, as enumerated: (1) stand; (2) floor-board; (3) outer case, with body-box or brood-chamber within; (4) surplus-chamber, with frames for extracting; (5) "lift" for raising roof when sections of honey are being filled; (6) roof. A hive of this kind costs about 20*s.* unpainted.

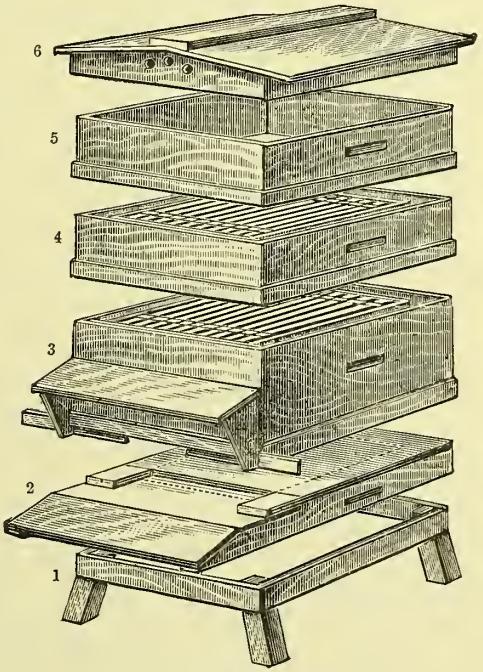

Fig. 505.

Should a honey-crop be desired the first year, a stock of bees should be purchased from a reliable dealer, on frames of comb containing brood and food, for about 25*s.* to 30*s.* A stock so purchased in April may be readily transferred to the hive (fig. 505) if on frames of "standard" size; and if stimulated by judicious feeding a good start may be made with the expectation of getting surplus honey or, if preferred, a couple of swarms before July. Care, however, must be taken to purchase only from a trustworthy man, as the dread bee-disease known as foul brood is most infectious.

The right aspect for bees is a question often disputed, but S.E. is

favoured by most. A quiet, sheltered spot is most suitable, with a free flight for the bees in front, and room in rear of the hives for all bee-work to be done, because the bees resent anyone standing in their direct line of flight. On no account should hives be moved—even a few yards—to new stands in the same garden, or the bees will fly back to the old location and be lost. They should therefore remain in one spot throughout the whole season.

Water is a necessity, and should there be no running stream near the apiary, a constant pure supply must be kept in shallow pans, with crossed straws or pebbles to prevent drowning. Though there are many drinking fountains and other appliances which can be purchased, the bee-keeper, when commencing, will do well to expend more money in good hives and healthy stocks than in a multitude of appurtenances. When the site for the apiary is being finally decided upon, bear in mind that proximity to fruit orchards or heath-clad moorlands is of great advantage, the former yielding early, and the latter late, crops of honey. But the main sources of supply come from such field-crops as white clover, sainfoin, mustard, and rape, and also from lime-trees. For spring, a few early garden-flowers may be grown near the hives, such as crocus, *Limnanthes Douglasii*, wall-flowers, mignonette, borage, &c. These yield pollen in early spring-time, which is such a necessity, as forming the nitrogenous portion of their food, that it must be supplied to the bees artificially in the form of pea flour should crocus, willow, furze, and other early blossoms fail. Sprinkle the flour on chopped straw in damp-proof boxes.

The Management of a Swarm.—Given a dry warm summer, the bees will begin to prepare for swarming from a healthy stock-hive in May, and sometimes hang out in thick clusters for several days before the old queen leads out her train, leaving the young one to reign in her stead. The old-fashioned clapping of tongs and drumming on tin pails when the swarm issues from the hive is now considered wasted energy, and smearing the new hives with sugar, beer, and treacle is also a custom of past days and quite unnecessary labour. When the swarm at length issues, and the bees settle on the branch or bush chosen by their queen, put the new hive (with its frames fitted with comb foundation beforehand) in the position which it is to occupy permanently; then, taking a clean skep in one hand, give the bough a vigorous shake, and the swarm will drop into the receptacle. The skep is then turned over on to a board—or a table-cloth laid on the ground—and propped up on one side. In a short time, if the queen is safe in the hiving-skep, all the flying bees will rejoin her. When they have collected again around the queen, place the skep near the new hive, and towards sunset proceed as follows:—

Put in front of the new hive a table or stand of the same height as that on which the hive rests; see that the floor-board is perfectly level, or the combs will be built crooked; and rest one edge of it on the alighting board. Prop up the front of the hive an inch or so with pieces of wood, to afford free entrance to the bees. Lift up the swarm gently, and throw the bees

out with a jerk, on to the table close to the hive-front; then, with a spoon, guide a few bees to the entrance, and they will all readily run in. The queen usually makes for the lifted hive, and is followed by the rest. She can be easily recognized, as she is not so broad in shape as a drone, but longer than the working bee, while her wings are much shorter than those of either.

When the swarm find the comb foundation, they soon set to work to furnish their new home. Quilts—the inner one of American cloth or calico, and the outer of felt—must be provided to fit over the frames. In very wet chilly weather it is prudent to feed the newly-hived swarm for a few days with a little syrup, or the bees will grow weak.

Harvesting the Honey.—After working for about five or six weeks, stock-hives should be furnished with supers—in fine hot seasons about the end of May—to be in readiness for the honey-flow. This sets in when the white clover is in full bloom. In heather counties the bees are moved up to the moors when the clover harvest is over, but it is not advisable to mix the honey in this way. The honey from garden-flowers and clover is light in colour, while heather honey is usually dark. In June and July, when bees work hardest, three or four supers may be placed on one hive, and either full sheets or narrow strips of comb foundation should be placed in each section. The sections must remain on till full and capped over, then be removed and stored in a warm dry place till needed for market.

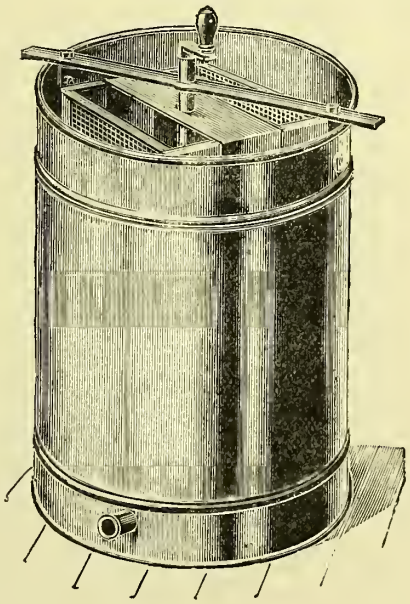

Fig. 506.—Honey Extractor.

Marketing the Honey.—Well-filled sections should weigh about 1 lb. each, and usually fetch from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 3*d.* per lb. retail. Heather honey, though dark in colour, is very delicious, and sometimes sells for as much as 1*s.* 6*d.* per lb. If glazed, the sections travel better packed in hay, and are much improved in appearance, a matter of the greatest importance in preparing honey for market. No matter how excellent the quality, uneven sections, or smeared and badly-corked bottles, detract from the value. Honey should not be extracted till the cells are well capped or sealed, for this shows that the honey is thoroughly ripe and not liable to fermentation.

The Use of the Extractor.—Honey for sale should be extracted from surplus-chambers, or supers placed above brood-chambers. By means of the extractor (fig. 506) the honey is emptied from the cells by centrifugal motion. Since the introduction of this machine, extracted honey has grown very

much in favour with consumers, as being free from pollen or brood, besides being untouched by the hands in process of removal. When using the extractor one should have ready a pair of good uncapping-knives, well sharpened, a deep jar of hot water, and a large basin of cold water in which to dip the hands as they become sticky. Begin by taking a frame of comb, resting the lower end of top-bar in a dish, and with the uncapping-knife—just removed from the hot water—shave off one side of capping by an upward movement of the knife. Turn the comb and uncap the other side; then place it in the extractor and rapidly turn the handle, when the honey is thrown into the cylinder by the rotary motion. In order to guard against damage to the cells an even speed should be maintained, and as soon as one side is empty the comb must be reversed. The extractor saves the bees much time and labour, and consequently increases the yield of honey, for when the empty comb is replaced in the hive, the process of refilling commences at once if honey is plentiful.

Wintering the Bees.—When September comes, the wintering of the bees must be attended to, and each hive should contain at least 20 to 30 lbs. of honey to serve as stores. Syrup-food should not be given after this month, soft candy only being suitable for winter feeding. The candy, moulded into cakes weighing about 2 lbs., is placed upon the frames under the quilts, and renewed as required.

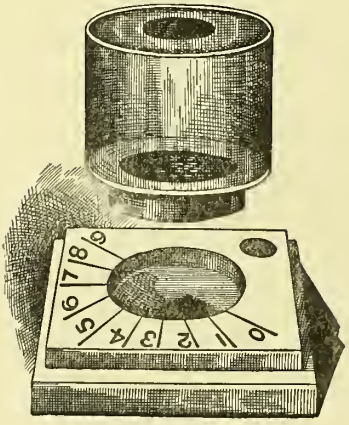

Fig. 507.—Bottle-feeder.

Should the winter prove severe, or spring be late, warm syrup-food should be given in March by means of a bottle-feeder (fig. 507), which is placed above the feed-hole in quilts, or coverings of frames. Warmth is so essential that the frames must be covered with quilts made of woollen stuff, the double walls of the hives being filled in with chaff or cork-dust.

Diseases of Bees.—Bees are subject to dysentery, proceeding from damp hives or carelessly boiled, and therefore fermented, syrup. "Foul brood" is, however, the worst pest, and must be guarded against by careful enquiry when the stocks or swarms are purchased. Second-hand hives should be avoided. Naphthalene in the hives is considered a useful preventive of infection, but it should be frequently renewed.

How to Handle Bees.—When handling bees it is well to wear a veil (fig. 508), but not gloves, as if the bees have been alarmed by a puff of smoke driven into the hive by means of a bee-smoker (fig. 509), they at once gorge themselves with honey and are not then inclined to sting. Before swarming, they fill their honey-sacs, and are in a fairly amiable mood; but the evening is the best time for hiving swarms.

Queens may remain fertile for four or five years, but to keep the

stock strong and healthy renew the queen every two years. The cages in use make queen introduction quite an easy matter. Should a stock become queenless by accident, the bees show restless agitation and work but little; while if there are no eggs or brood in the hive at the time of her loss to raise as queens, the bees soon dwindle and die.

Gelieu, the ancient writer on bees, sums up in one pithy sentence the chief rules for health in an apiary. "Bees", he says, "should know not

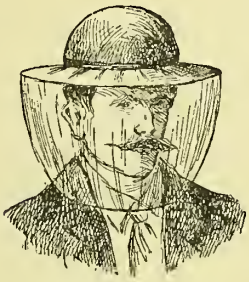

Fig. 508.—Protection Veil.

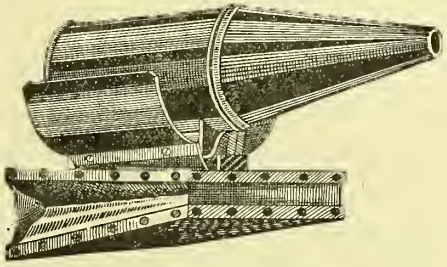

Fig. 509.—Bee-smoker.

real disease . . . with fine food, warmth, and cleanliness, they fail not to thrive apace."

Finally, it is very essential that beginners should equip themselves with a good text-book, which gives full details of every operation necessary to ensure success. Price about 1*s.* 6*d.*

FANCY-WORK.

There is a popular idea that money may be made from fancy-work executed at home. Certain skilled workers do undoubtedly add considerably to their incomes by embroidery, by making dainty knick-knacks, and, in rare cases, even by knitting and crochet. At the same time there is no greater fallacy than to suppose that there is any market at all for indifferent, or even for fairly good, work. Fancy needle-work is both an art and a craft; it has advanced greatly since the beginning of the century, and all who hope to attain to success in it must, as in any other pursuit, possess strong natural aptitude developed by thorough and systematic training. Further, if money is to be made, it is obvious that business capacity is essential.

There is, nowadays, keen competition in every branch of art, and amateurs have but little chance against professionals. Small and precarious sums may from time to time be gained in needle-work competitions, or by means of the kindness and personal recommendation of friends, but these are occasional and uncertain benefits. Anyone wishing to take up needle-

work for profit should be prepared to expend both time and money in training for it, as for any other business.

Various technical schools admit pupils. Among the more important of them is the Royal School of Art Needle-work, Exhibition Road, South Kensington, where students are required to pay a fee of five pounds in return for nine lessons of five hours each. On the satisfactory completion of this preliminary course of instruction, the name of the applicant is registered as a qualified worker, which makes her eligible for employment in case her services should be required. This registration does not, however, in any way pledge the school to give employment, and if work is offered, it has to be executed on the premises, seven hours' attendance daily being expected.

These rules, with modifications, are adopted by all the art schools, the principle upon which they are conducted being that only such pupils as have satisfactorily served their apprenticeship are offered remunerative work, though even then not often at their own homes.

Among other London associations giving lessons in various branches of fancy-work and home arts are the following:—The Working Ladies' Guild, 251 Brompton Road, S.W.; Decorative Needle-work Society, 17 Sloane Street, S.W.; Chiswick Art Workers' Guild, Bath Road, Bedford Park, and 115 Gloucester Road, S.W.; and East Grinstead School of Embroidery, 32 Queen's Square, Bloomsbury, W.C. Mention should also be made of the Wemyss Needle-work School, East Wemyss, N.B.; Methlick School of Embroidery, Mains of Haddo, Aberdeen; and Royal Irish School of Art Needle-work, 20 Lincoln Place, Dublin.

One of the most important functions performed by embroidery schools is the training of teachers. A worker who has become proficient in her art has presumably also learnt to teach it, and should be competent to start and conduct local classes, or to take office in provincial schools where needle-work forms part of the curriculum. More is to be made in this way than by the mere practical exercise of the needle. At the same time, the supply of teachers is greatly in excess of the demand. The needle-work schools have not merely completed their staffs, but also include on their books the names of many candidates who have but a distant chance of admission.

Still more overcrowded are the repositories which undertake the sale of ladies' work. The schools, naturally, give such employment as they can offer to their own pupils. Among the chief agencies for the sale of ladies' work in London are the following:—The Ladies' Work Society, 31 Sloane Street, S.W., and Sale of Work of Ladies in Reduced Circumstances, 136 Alexander Road, St. John's Wood. At Leamington is the Royal Charitable Repository, 72 The Parade, Leamington Spa; at Reading, Society for the Sale of Work of Ladies of Limited Means, 66 Castle Street; and at Southport, the Ladies' Work Society, 269 Lord Street. In Edinburgh are the Royal Edinburgh Repository, 32 Frederick Street, and the Gentlewoman's Self-aid Society, 23 Castle Street. In Ireland are many such associations,

among them the Irish Work Society for Upper Classes in Reduced Circumstances, Idrone-sur-mer, Blackrock, Co. Dublin.

It must be thoroughly understood that all are in large measure charitable institutions. The rules differ in details, but in principle are very similar. Honorary members contribute subscriptions varying from a guinea upwards, and have the power of nominating the working members. The latter must afford proof that they are in poor circumstances; they usually pay a small subscription, and their work is offered for sale on commission. Nothing can more plainly show how poorly paid is average fancy-work than the fact that societies for the sale of it are largely dependent upon the contributions of honorary members.

Those who cannot afford to spend much time or money upon education should submit specimens of their work at the shops, where it is possible they may be shown on the chance of a sale on commission. The wholesale houses may occasionally be induced to take knick-knacks—pin-cushions, photo-frames, and so on—provided that they are absolutely original in conception and exceedingly well made of good materials. If the samples first submitted give satisfaction, an order for more may follow. These must be delivered punctually, and must be in no way inferior to or different from the first instalment. Such directions may seem superfluous, but experience proves that they are frequently ignored.

Some ladies sell work by means of advertisements in journals. This method is of course expensive, and returns are long in coming in. Still, if the articles offered are original and uniformly well done, a good connection may be worked up by long and arduous exertion. The worker must be quick to seize the mood of the moment and to move with the fashion. It is well for her not to try to excel in every branch of work at once, but to experiment in a few directions until success is attained. If she confines herself to some one speciality, and endeavours to make a reputation for it, she will probably do far better than by an attempt to cover a wider extent of ground.

Really artistic embroidery for ecclesiastical and secular use should be considered as the highest grade of fancy needle-work; next in importance are knick-knacks; and last of all, come knitting and crochet. The last are unprofitable, the supply being vastly in excess of the demand. At times there is a temporary opening for some particular articles—for elaborately-worked shooting or cycling stockings, or for fine crochet laces and d'oyleys. But here hand-work has been almost entirely superseded, woollen goods spun by machinery being light, warm, and absolutely even, while woven cotton laces are cheaper than crochet, and for many purposes quite as effective.

Knitting machines are sometimes mentioned as being profitable investments. In many cases the vendors undertake to dispose of articles made by purchasers. This they often do in part or whole payment of the machine, and directly the required sum has been earned the orders cease, and the knitter is entirely dependent upon her own resources. In this

case advertisements and incessant and personal canvassing are the only means of obtaining work.

Caution should be exercised in answering advertisements which offer remunerative home occupation. No notice should be taken of those which require money deposits. The usual object of such advertisements is to dispose of certain work materials to be used by the buyer, who is then to retail her productions at such profit as she may be able to secure. This is likely to be small indeed, even if she has exceptional opportunities and powers as a saleswoman.

To sum up, while fancy-work can be made remunerative by untiring energy, patience, and skill, it is at all times poorly paid, considering the time involved in its production. It is, therefore, not to be recommended as a profitable pursuit to those who are capable of earning money in any other way.

JOURNALISM AND LITERATURE.

The journalism which can fairly be classed among home occupations is of necessity limited in scope. Yet a considerable proportion of the press-work which naturally falls to the share of ladies can be done, and is done, with more or less success, by those who have other interests in life to which part of their time must be devoted.

Of course, not every girl who has won a prize in a short-story competition, or a certificate from the essay society belonging to her pet magazine, is capable of becoming even a mediocre journalist, for the knack of stringing words together smoothly is not of itself a sufficient qualification, valuable though it may be. Intelligence, a good memory, powers of quick and accurate observation, business capacity, and that peculiar but indefinable aptitude for the work which is almost more essential to success than downright talent—all these, besides a good stock of patience and perseverance, are indispensable attributes.

The beginner must at the outset lay aside any idea of publishing articles on what may be termed stock subjects. No one cares to know the opinion of a young, inexperienced, and absolutely unknown writer on "The Equality of the Sexes", or is concerned with her critical estimate of George Eliot's earlier and later styles. Nor, if she will be advised, will she try her luck with a sentimentally "picturesque" paper on "Autumn Leaves" or "The First Rose". This sort of thing has been done, and done by abler pens, too often already. Let her write articles on these subjects by all means, and on as many other topics as she pleases, for it will afford her excellent practice, but such papers must be reserved for her own edification. They have no market value, and the beginner must, beyond all things, aim at writing what will sell. When she has attained success she may write to please herself, but not before.

How to Begin.—The novice, then, should begin by taking stock of her

surroundings, the incidents of her everyday life, and considering her own special tastes. Let her think how best she can make use of the materials which lie ready to her hand. If she thinks she has a gift for short-story writing she may attempt a few brief sketches of the phases of life she knows most thoroughly, not of that mysterious "society" of whose ways and customs she probably knows nothing beyond what she has learned through the medium of the halfpenny papers. Short stories not exceeding 2500 words in length, and of average quality, are always in demand; and the standard of merit in many of the second and third rate penny weeklies is certainly not high.

The beginner should note everything she sees and hears, and consider whether there is "copy" in it, practising without ceasing the conversion of the raw material into the more or less finished article, altering, recasting, rewriting, and above all condensing, until at last she finds she has something sufficiently good to send out on a trial trip. It will probably come back to her accompanied by one of those chilly little printed forms she will get to know too well, and unless she is unusually fortunate the experience will be repeated not seldom.

The causes of rejection are many and various, but the fact that a manuscript has been rejected by a dozen editors does not necessarily prove that it is bad. Still, if an article has been submitted many times fruitlessly, and its author has no reason to think its failure is due to an unfortunate choice of journals, she will do well to put it away for a few months. Probably she will then be capable of a more dispassionate estimate of it, and the experience she has gained in the interval may enable her to see wherein its weakness lies and to rewrite it with a better result. It is, indeed, best to lay aside any article for a day or two, and then to criticise it in cold blood.

But the young journalist must not devote the whole, nor half, of her available time to writing with a view to publication. She has much to learn. Probably she will have to improve her grammar, composition, and spelling, all of which are neglected subjects in a modern education. In addition she should make brief abstracts of every book she reads; she should study the best literary models, and she must write daily practice-articles to improve her style and to give her a better command of her own language. Most women writers have a tendency to undue prolixity; their sentences are too long and parenthetical, and they are apt to lack the sense of proportion, often clothing a very small idea in very elaborate language. These propensities should be conquered as far as possible, although, if truth must be told, even the most successful women journalists are generally wanting in terseness.

It should be remembered that a good beginning is essential; the success of an article is sometimes due to the favourable impression created at the outset, in the first paragraph, even in the first sentence. And that first sentence is always the most difficult to write. Nearly as important is a good ending. An article or story that loses its interest as it goes on, and

fades away into a vague and futile conclusion, will assuredly be unsuccessful. When a manuscript is completed, and its "very last" revision finished, the writer should read it aloud (to herself, not to her family, for a too friendly audience is worse than none) and try to imagine what its effect will be on others. Will it make people laugh? Will it make them cry? Will it add to their information or give them something to think about? If it will do none of these things, then its failure is certain.

It is undoubtedly advantageous if a girl is able to take up some particular subject, such as cookery, home-decoration, gardening, or embroidery. If she has a speciality of this kind she should spare no pains to increase her knowledge of it, reading everything that she can procure relating to it, making abstracts and taking notes, which must be carefully arranged and classified. Her knowledge, moreover, must be practical as well as theoretical.

How to Obtain Journalistic Work.—The one and only way for a beginner to get her manuscripts accepted, published, and paid for, is to send them, and to continue sending them, to the editors of the various daily, weekly, or monthly journals, as the case may be. Private influence and personal introductions are not of such value to the success of a journalist as is popularly imagined. The choice of the paper or magazine is of the first importance, yet the novice often makes glaring mistakes on this point—mistakes which an hour spent in the nearest free library or a couple of shillings judiciously laid out at a news-agent's should render impossible. Not only must the style and general tone of the journal be considered, but the average length of its articles, so that there may be no danger of offering a contribution of 3000 words to a paper whose pages are entirely and invariably made up of articles of less than half that length. The ever-increasing number of penny weekly journals offers a big field for the enterprise of the young journalist; the threepenny and sixpenny magazines too are always open to consider new ideas, and their editors have no prejudices against unknown writers.

It is an error of judgment for a lady writer to confine herself entirely to women's papers. She should, if her qualifications admit, go further afield and try those catering for the general public. If the beginner has made some special subject her own she may reasonably hope to obtain, without a very long or arduous apprenticeship, regular and fairly well-paid work on a paper that has a department devoted to her particular branch. Perhaps she may be able to get in the thin end of the wedge by answering any queries carefully and promptly, if the paper is one of those that print questions from correspondents and accept answers from outside sources. For such replies she will receive no payment, but her name will have a chance of becoming familiar to the editor in connection with the special subject, and by and by a short succinct article may be submitted with a probability of its acceptance. In time she may get entire charge of such a department, her duties consisting of answering queries, contributing practical articles herself, reading and reporting on those from outsiders

referred to her by the editor, and hunting up and noting any novelties connected with her particular subject. Perhaps the chief objections to this class of journalistic work are, firstly, the slip-shod style it is apt to engender; secondly, the way in which its threads are often interwoven with those of the advertisement department. "Introducing the names of advertisers" and puffing wares which she probably does not honestly admire, and which possibly she has not even seen, are distasteful tasks to a cultured woman.

Work on provincial newspapers is difficult to obtain and not particularly well paid. Most, if not all, of the minor country journals make up their "Boudoir Chat" or "Woman's Corner" out of cuttings supplied by press agencies. The most important papers certainly have their own lady contributors, but a beginner is scarcely likely to become one of these until she can show some specimens of work actually published. She may, however, if she has the opportunity, send in short brightly-written notes on any event of general interest that comes within her ken. Such articles as these may eventually find acceptance and lead up to regular employment.

The idea of writing a weekly "ladies' letter" is one that always appeals strongly to the new hand. Yet it is a thing not easy to do really well. It calls for exceptionally acute powers of observation, a nice perception of what to select for description and what to reject, and a crisp and attractive style of writing. A letter which is a mere bald catalogue of shop goods is dull, and consequently has no market value.

Seasonable articles, *e.g.* "Christmas Customs", "Hallow-e'en Superstitions", are, if pleasantly written, often accepted by weekly journals of the "popular" type, provided they are sent in sufficiently early. The beginner is rarely aware how long before the date of publication weekly and monthly periodicals are made up.

Sell's "Dictionary of the World's Press" would be found useful for reference purposes by anyone taking to journalistic work.

Illustrated Articles.—Photography may form a valuable adjunct to journalism. A smartly-written article on some comparatively little-known place, or one to which public attention has been attracted for some reason or other, will frequently, if accompanied by good clear photographs, have a chance of acceptance, when, if unillustrated, it would be promptly rejected. The rate of payment for articles with photographs supplied by the writer varies widely. Many periodicals pay for the space occupied by the illustration at the same rate as for the reading matter; others give from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.* for each photograph used. A few papers pay as much as half a guinea for photographs of special interest. The writer must distinctly understand that she may not illustrate her articles with other people's photographs except by express permission. It is not wise to fall foul of the copyright laws.

Remuneration.—It is almost unnecessary to say that the rate of payment varies as widely as does the scope and style of the journals themselves. The threepenny and sixpenny weekly papers, intended more especially for

women's reading, pay from 7*s.* 6*d.* to 30*s.* a column; the daily papers from 20*s.* to £5, 5*s.* a column; the monthly magazines from 4*s.* to 21*s.* a page. And the method of paying differs as essentially. Some journals require an account to be delivered by the writer, giving title of article, date of appearance and length in pages, inches or lines; others send out postal orders or cheques within a short time of publication without troubling their contributors; a few pay outside contributors at once, but the members of their staff only quarterly or even yearly.

The amount a home-journalist may fairly expect to earn is a question which it is obviously impossible to answer definitely. Broadly, however, she may esteem herself exceptionally fortunate if she earns £10 in her first twelve months of work, and if after five or six years of steady, persevering, unflagging industry, she finds she can calculate upon earning an average income of £120, she may congratulate herself upon having attained success.

Sending out MSS.—Inexperienced writers are far too fond of enclosing with their MS. a long explanatory letter. This is quite unnecessary. If a letter is sent at all, it should be as brief and business-like as possible, and, above all things, should contain no allusion to the circumstances which have impelled or compelled the writer to take up literary work. Such particulars are not likely to interest, and, indeed, are very apt to irritate, a busy editor.

MSS. for press should be written on one side of foolscap or post-quarto paper, with a wide margin down the left side; the sheets should be numbered and fastened together at the top left-hand corner with a proper paper-fastener, not a pin or a bit of cotton. On the first page nothing more should be written than the title of the article, the number of words it contains, and the name and address of its author. The name and address should also be written on the back of the MS., where they will be visible when it is folded. The MS. should never in any circumstances be rolled. If the handwriting is clear and legible, it is not absolutely necessary to have the work type-written, although it is desirable. A few editors certainly decline to consider articles that are not type-written, but the majority are nearly as well pleased with neat penmanship. An addressed and sufficiently stamped stout envelope should be enclosed with the MS. for its return if not accepted.

As to the period that may be expected to elapse before the receipt of the verdict—that is yet another point on which it is impossible to give any certain information. Some editors return declined MSS. within a couple of days, others hold them over for weeks and months; a few never return them at all. Some notify acceptance promptly, but as a rule the author will know nothing of her good luck until the arrival of the proofs. Indeed, in the case of those journals that do not return proofs for the writer's correction, it is impossible to know whether an article is accepted or not, except by watching the columns of the paper. There are journals, too, that have a bad habit of holding over articles for a year or two, and

then publishing them without communicating in any way with the author. If nothing is heard of a MS. after three or four months have expired since its despatch, it is allowable, if not altogether advisable, to write a polite note to the editor enquiring as to its fate.

Authorship.—Nearly all that has been said with reference to journalism as a home occupation can be applied to the more ambitious profession of literature. Nowadays, indeed, the two are so intimately connected as to be all but indivisible. There are, however, a good many young writers who, despising what they are pleased to consider the dreary round of press-work, cherish ideas of publishing a book of verses or a novel which will take the world by storm, and fill their pockets with untold gold. Only bitter experience will teach the novice that poetry is the most unsaleable of literary work. Therefore, except in so far as it is excellent practice, the beginner will do well to put away all thoughts of verse-making. But for fiction there is always a market, provided that it is the sort of fiction that people want to buy, the fashionable brand in fact, for there are as decided fashions in novels as in hats.

Before putting pen to paper, the novelist must have in her mind an absolutely clear and definite outline, complete in every detail, of the story she has to tell. All the characters in it must be living entities, not mere shadows; she must be able to laugh and cry with them; they must be real companions in her daily life. When the story stands out clearly in her mind, she may write it down, in skeleton always to start with, if it is a novel with a plot of any degree of elaboration. She should not open with a long descriptive preamble—this style of beginning is out of date—but should dash boldly into the story at once, letting her characters tell their own tale naturally.

Mannerisms and tricks of diction should be watched for and nipped in the bud, for trifling faults of this kind have a tendency to become accentuated with time, until they seriously mar what may be otherwise an excellent literary style.

On no account should the inexperienced novelist allow herself to be persuaded into paying anything towards the publication of her book. If it has any selling value, sooner or later it will find a publisher who will bring it out at his own risk. If it is rejected by all the best firms, it had better be laid aside as a failure.

Literary Societies.—The young writer will be able to obtain much valuable counsel by joining the Society of Authors, the office of which is at 4 Portugal Street, Lincoln's Inn Fields, London. The yearly subscription is a guinea. The majority of women writers, at any rate among those living in London, belong to one or other of the literary clubs or societies which have sprung into existence during the past few years. The Writers' Club, which has its head-quarters at Hastings House, Norfolk Street, Strand, has many members, and is more of a social than a purely literary institution. The Society of Women Journalists has offices in Arundel Street, Strand, W.C. Some journalistic qualifications must be possessed by

candidates for membership. The society gives a series of lectures every winter, generally at the rooms of the Society of Arts in John Street, Adelphi. A benevolent fund and an employment register are worked in connection with it.

MARKET-GARDENING.

Fruit under Glass.—Whilst such fruits as apples, pears, peaches, and autumn grapes can scarcely be grown at a profit owing to foreign competition, others, such as tomatoes, early and late grapes, early strawberries, and peaches and nectarines, can be made to pay well. Span-roofed houses or frames constructed to catch all the sunshine possible in winter, and with sufficient artificial heat at command, are essential to success.

Tomatoes are perhaps the easiest to manage, and most profitable, the English fruit being always preferred to the foreign. For early fruit, seeds should be sown in heat in November, and the plants grown in a light position in a temperature of 55° to 60°. When properly managed they should yield a first crop in May or June.

Grapes require a house to themselves if they are to be forced to ripen fruit in June; they should be planted in inside borders. They need skilful treatment, and therefore their cultivation should not be attempted unless experienced labour is available. Late grapes are much more easily grown, and if properly ripened they will keep well into the winter. The best sorts for market purposes are — *black*: Black Hamburgh, Gros Colman, Alicante; *white*: Muscat of Alexandria, Buckland Sweetwater, Trebbiano. Probably the most useful and safest grape for an amateur is Black Hamburgh.

Figs are not difficult to manage, and where space is limited they may be grown against the walls of lean-to houses. If grown in pots they require rich treatment, and plenty of heat when forced.

Strawberries grown in pots in the open air, and brought into a house or frame to be forced, are usually profitable. They require care whilst in flower, and, of course, as much sunlight as possible at all times. A shelf close to the roof glass in a sunny, warm house is most congenial to them, though they should be previously started in a cool frame.

Carefulness in gathering and packing are essential to the securing of good prices in the market for all fruits; it is therefore worth while to consult someone conversant with the art of packing fruit for market before attempting it one's self.

Vegetables.—Green peas are well worth cultivating. The ordinary greengrocer recognizes only about a month as the green-pea season—from the third week in June till the end of July. Before the former date they are "not in", and after the latter they are "all over". But the practical gardener knows that these delicious vegetables may be had out in

the open air in favoured localities by the first week in June, and by judicious regulation of the crops down to the middle of October. If the kinds are carefully selected, and the sowings made a fortnight apart, from the middle of February, peas may abound for quite four months of the summer and autumn.

Many gardeners sow a few rows of early peas at the beginning of November, and if the weather remains fairly mild they speedily come up thick and strong. Severe and protracted frost and snow sometimes kill them, but they frequently survive even a hard winter, and come into bearing earlier than any others. Those, however, who do not care to run any risk will do very well by sowing in mid-February or early March, and going regularly on at fortnightly intervals. There is no crop for which it pays so well to have a private connection and sell without the intervention of the middle-man, and one or two advertisements, in addition to even a small circle of friends, will produce as many customers as most amateurs can supply.

The plan is to shell the peas, and sell them at so much per quart. Coffee or mustard tins or cardboard boxes can be utilized for sending them by post, and postage should always be extra. A quart of shelled peas makes quite a nice little dish for a small family, and many ladies are only too thankful to get such a quantity of really fresh green peas delivered at their own doors, instead of depending on the greengrocer. Early and late in the season really high prices may thus be obtained, for customers soon learn to recognize the advantage of obtaining fresh peas, which moreover do not require shelling, and therefore, as compared with those sold in the ordinary course, represent a considerable saving of servants' time.

Salad-growing is another profitable branch of gardening, but it must be done with intelligence. There are whole counties where no more inviting lettuce than a large green "cos" is ever grown, and the shops are everywhere few and far between where a small, close-hearted, crisp white lettuce is procurable, though an occasional box of the French variety may be seen, and the average price is from 2*d.* to 3*d.* each. "All the Year Round" is an excellent sort of lettuce to grow. Considerable breadths of them should be sown at about fortnightly intervals, for they are good at all times. In October it is advisable to prick out the best of the young plants into cold frames, where, if properly ventilated, they will come on, not perhaps to full perfection, but far enough to be very good in salad. Some gardeners sow quantities in shallow boxes at the approach of winter, and place them under glass. When the leaves are large enough to have their distinctive flavour, they are cut for mixture with other salad herbs without waiting for them to form hearts.

Shallow boxes of cress should be sown weekly, the seed just scattered on the top. The box, covered with a piece of board, may be placed on the greenhouse floor. The seed germinates rapidly, and in a few days white stalks and yellow leaflets about half an inch high appear. The boards

should then be removed and the box brought into the full light, and in three or four days the cress will be fit to cut. Mustard grows even more rapidly under the same treatment, and if both are to be used together, the cress should be allowed double as long as the mustard or rape, which is the so-called "cress" of the shops.

Another plant well worth growing is "lamb's lettuce" or "rosette salading", so popular in France for winter salads. It is quite hardy, and, though somewhat flavourless, is a great help when green stuff is scarce. Water-cress may also be grown in damp trenches. Chicory, endive, and even dandelion are worth attention in localities where salads are in demand. Celery, too, is a profitable crop, and so is horse-radish, which flourishes in any odd corner.

Parsley is in continual demand, and in hard winters is remunerative. April and August are the best months in which to sow it, the late crop requiring protection from frost. It is also worth while to have some large boxes of it.

Mint forces well in boxes on the floor of a greenhouse, and there is a strong market for it when early lamb makes its appearance. Radishes grown in frames are a paying crop when marketed in May.

French beans are easily grown in frames, or planted in boxes or pots to be placed in houses to fruit; with a little care they can be had in fruit almost all the winter.

If cucumbers are to be profitable they must be in the market as soon as salmon is in season. Later they are so plentiful as to be worth little, unless they are sold privately by grower to consumer.

Asparagus and sea-kale always bring good prices, especially the former, which is sold in bundles of 50 or 100 sticks. Sea-kale should be white. The whitening process is accomplished by covering the plants with pots or boxes, well heaped round with stable litter or dead leaves. Indeed, sea-kale may be forced quite well in a cellar, or under a stage in a greenhouse. In order to do this the roots should be lifted, placed in rows in a few inches of soil or manure, and kept moist.

Fruit.—Orchard fruit, cherries, pears, apples, plums, damsons, filberts, and cobs are perhaps most profitable when sold on the trees to a dealer. He sends his own ladders, men, and baskets, when the fruit is fit for market, and it is gathered and packed without any trouble to the seller. If there are any apples that repay private gathering and storing, they are Ribstone, Cox's Orange Pippin, and Blenheim Orange, for which high prices may often be obtained in December.

Dealers are observant of crops, and if they see large strawberry beds or a considerable number of raspberry canes and black-currant trees, they are very likely to call in summer, and enquire if there are any to spare. In this case it is sometimes more convenient to sell to them than to employ outside labour in picking.

In laying out a garden for profit, it is much wiser to plant bush and standard fruit-trees than any others. They do not shade and keep the sun

off other things; they come very early into bearing; the fruit is extremely fine, and may be gathered by anyone without the aid of steps or long ladders.

Flowers.—Growing flowers for sale is to a great extent a winter occupation. In summer, flowers are so plentiful that little, if any, profit can ordinarily be made out of them, though there are a few nursery-men who make a speciality of sending boxes of flowers by post from 2*s.* and upwards, and do a fair amount of business with private customers in large towns. The kinds they cultivate for this purpose are chiefly carnations, roses, and sweet-peas.

There is always a certain demand for home-grown flowers about Christmas, and afterwards until the beginning of Lent, as there are then a good many dinners and dances. Nothing pays so well as tea roses, provided they are of good shape and clean, that is, not infested with green-fly. Stephanotis, or Cape jessamine, is also very popular, and a good house of this lovely and fragrant white flower is a valuable property, but one that takes a few years to bring to perfection. Lilies of the valley, either for cutting or in pots, which always command a good price in winter, force well. Gardenia, very late chrysanthemums, Roman hyacinth, eucharis, white azalea, arum lily, and camellias are good plants to grow for a supply of white flowers for church decoration for Christmas and Easter. Red flowers may be obtained from rhododendrons, azaleas, camellias, forced hybrid perpetual roses, and tacsonia. A few large yellow daffodils are always worth putting into heat for early work. Tree and herbaceous pæonies are also worth forcing for church decoration.

At Easter white flowers have a special value. Arum lilies sometimes fetch 10*s.* a dozen. They can be grown in large pots or even well-drained boxes, or it is worth while to make a border for them. They should be planted out in the garden during late spring and summer to recruit their strength, and brought back to their flowering places at the end of August. White deutzias, spiræas, and azaleas are also in demand, and if only cut flowers are sold all these plants come in again another year. Double white primulas are useful to cut from, as are single white primulas in pots. The latter are raised from seed which should be sown in the previous May or June, but the blossoms are apt to fall when cut. White hyacinths, white narcissi, and daffodils are most useful, and the bulbs, of course, do duty again.

Violets are well worth growing for profit, the best kinds being—*double*: De Parma, Marie Louise, Neapolitan; *single*: Princess of Wales, Russian. They should, if possible, be grown in cold frames close to the glass. To ensure quantities of flowers, young plants must be put in thickly every year early in August. Frames previously used for cucumbers do very well for the violets. Old matting, carpet, or straw put over the glass in severe weather is all the protection needed. When the blossoms are over, the plants should be divided and put out in the open ground in a shady situation. Those that are not wanted need not be thrown away. A short

advertisement in a gardening paper, offering them at so much per dozen by post, will in all likelihood bring in plenty of prepaid applications for them.

Camellias are coming into fashion again; they are very hardy, only requiring plenty of room, a fair amount of root moisture, and protection from frost. The one thing they cannot stand is gas. They are essentially winter-blossoming plants.

White gardenias, which so many people confound with camellias, require stove heat, and are rather difficult to manage, though, when they like their position and have exactly the right treatment, they bloom profusely. Good flowers in winter and quite early spring sometimes fetch as much as fourpence each, and even more.

Some cool orchids are easy to grow, and occasionally a good sum may be realized from their flowers. The best kinds to grow for this purpose are *Odontoglossum crispum, O. Piscatorei, O. Rossii, Cypripedium insigne,* and *Cœlogyne cristata.* The blossoms last a long time in water, and unless absolutely crushed or torn to pieces they may be remounted and worn over and over again. At first hand each orchid is worth quite a considerable price.

Pansies, daffodils, and auriculas are the hardiest of what are called florists' flowers, and a good many people make a speciality of them, and cultivate them with a zeal that becomes almost mania. They may all be raised from seed, and anyone who establishes a name for special kinds is sure to get plenty of orders.

Tea-roses on their own roots are profitable because they are so easily raised. Wood that has flowered readily takes root about August, and the cuttings can be planted very close together.

The cultivation of bulbs, such as choice daffodils and tulips, may bring but small profit, but the returns are quick. It is most economical to cultivate them under trees, in an orchard for instance, because they are quite over before the fruit makes much show. The cut flowers always sell, and fresh bulbs form so rapidly from the parent ones that they speedily make a little stock-in-trade, while the old bulbs are all the better for the removal of the offshoots.

Seeds.—Those who wish to make a speciality of seeds must be very exact and methodical. It is of the greatest importance that they should be kept pure and unmixed.

The owner of a particularly fine white or red sweet-pea, for instance, must mark the blossoms and watch for the seed, and take the greatest care to keep them separate from the seeds of other sweet-peas. Some growers sell selections of six or twelve kinds, containing a little marked packet of each colour, at prices varying from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* 6*d.*

Exactly the same applies to pansies and violas. Pure whites, bright yellows, and well-defined blues are highly valued for spring beds and borders, but the colours must be distinct. A black viola is in reality a very dark purple, and makes little show in a garden, but has its value as

a curiosity. Each seed-pod is triangular when it bursts, and contains a large number of small shiny seeds.

Auricula seed is much sought after by lovers of the flowers. Each plant must be very carefully labelled, as when the blossom is off there is no natural indication of the colour, and there is never a stray bloom as in the case of pansies.

Polyanthus seed and seedlings are pretty sure of a good sale. The golden-laced varieties are the handsomest and, of course, the most esteemed; but the yellow and the white can scarcely be distinguished from oxlips. If the seeds are sown in August the young plants should be in good condition for spring beds, succeeding crocuses, and harmonizing well with dwarf scarlet and yellow tulips. Many people would gladly fill up their beds in this manner instead of leaving them bare till the season comes round for summer bedding-plants, if they only knew how easily and cheaply it can be done.

The seed of forget-me-not drop plentifully, and grow wherever they fall. It is therefore far easier, and more profitable, to sell the young plants than to collect the seeds.

There is generally a good market for young seedlings of white and yellow foxglove; neither of them is very common, and both make a charming show in early summer.

The seeds of white and rose-pink Canterbury bells are also worth saving. The flower has a strong tendency to revert to blue, which is the colour of the original type, and as anyone who buys a packet of mixed seed is not likely to get more than a very few white and pink specimens out of it, seed carefully saved from flowers of these colours is distinctly valuable.

Any quantity of Shirley and other poppy seed can generally be disposed of, as it is very light and few have the patience to watch for and collect it. Seeds of asters, stocks, pentstemons, wallflowers, antirrhinums, and tuberous begonias, if of a good strain, are easily sold.

To preserve and sell the seeds of ordinary vegetables requires a large space of ground, and few owners of gardens can do more than save and store enough seeds for their own use in the following spring. There are some things, however, of which one buys very few seeds for sixpence, though they are plentiful and always saleable if known to be of a good and reliable strain. Chief of these are cucumber, vegetable marrow, and tomato. Each ripened fruit contains a quantity, and if carefully dried, and sufficiently watered when sown, very few fail, and that can hardly be said of bought seeds. Probably that is because the temptation to mix old seeds with new ones is strong, and very few keep their power of germination beyond the first year.

POULTRY-REARING FOR PROFIT.

Prospects of Poultry-Rearing.—There are very many opinions as to the profits to be obtained from poultry-rearing. While some show, on paper, most satisfactory balance-sheets, the farmer still protests that, carried on as an independent business, it is wholly unremunerative. Where a large rent for land, expensive houses and appliances, and a considerable weekly expenditure in wages enter into the scheme, it is often a dead loss; but there are other aspects to the question. People who put up their own houses and runs, grow their own green-stuff, feed and look after the fowls with intelligent interest and limit their numbers, often tell a different tale. The old Spanish proverb says truly, "The eye of the master fattens the cattle": the majority of failures may be traced to the lack of the owner's supervision.

It is often said that the millions of pounds paid to France, Spain, and Russia for eggs imported yearly into this country should be kept within our own land. But climate is much more favourable abroad, and the absence of damp, so fruitful of disease in English poultry-yards, is a large factor in the success of foreign egg-production. The system of collection, too, is well organized in France, higglers arranging their rounds so as to secure a regular supply of new-laid eggs for the great Continental merchants. Still, the future is not without hope for the poultry-farmer in England, provided that he is fairly near his market. If light railways decrease the cost of carriage, and if a more careful choice of non-sitting fowls increases his stock of eggs, he should be able to have a fair share of this industry.

A pen of average birds should give at least 120 eggs each a year. If each hen costs 6*s.* a year, including all sundries, each egg costs but three-fifths of a penny. When one remembers that even in country villages those who wish for new-laid eggs have often to pay 1½*d.* or 2*d.* apiece, and that 2½*d.* and 3*d.* is a common charge in London during the winter months, there should be a good margin of profit, except for the most incompetent or wasteful of fowl-owners.

It is important to remember that a large increase in stock does not mean proportionate profit. Poultry-farming on a very extended scale has never yet proved successful; whether it may do so in the future remains to be seen. Buying young birds and fattening them up pays better, but the expenses of fencing and housing, and the certainty that the land will become "chicken-sick", are sadly against profits if the outlay is great. Yet money is to be turned over by adopting the practice of a shrewd old farmer's wife, who owns that she has put by a comfortable sum from her poultry-yard during thirty years, because she has looked after it well herself, trusting no hired servants to handle her corn-bin, and used common sense.

If poultry is to be successfully reared and fattened for market, regular

customers and cheap transit must be secured, and the middle-man dispensed with. At Heathfield, in Sussex, a regular industry is established, and the number of persons who yearly engage in rearing and fattening fowls for market is proof positive that there is money in the scheme. Prices there range from 1*s.* 8*d.* in summer to 3*s.* 6*d.* or 4*s.* in early spring, when the January chicks hatched in the incubators well repay the trouble they have required. The charge of salesman's commission and carriage by rail comes to 2*s.* 6*d.* per dozen, while the London, Brighton, and South Coast Railway has a scale of 20*s.* per ton, and delivers over 10 cwts. The average cost of food for rearing is computed at 1*s.* per chicken, and for fattening at 2*s.* 6*d.* per dozen chickens. The Heathfield scheme can, in the home poultry-yard, be well carried out on a smaller scale with considerable profit.

Breeds of Fowl.—A very decided mistake is often made at the outset by the purchase of the wrong class of fowl. Cottagers err in this way, having a strong prejudice in favour of heavily-feathered, large-limbed mongrels, chiefly Brahma and Cochin crossed. It is almost impossible to convince them that, in rearing for the higglers, they should run an Indian game-cock with coloured Dorking hens, and thus produce the best table poultry and gain higher prices. These chickens are rapid in growth, and make fine white flesh and plenty of breast.

If egg-production is aimed at chiefly, the Leghorn and Minorca are unrivalled for their laying powers, and as non-sitters; and if a non-sitter, fair layer, and good table bird combined is needed, the Houdans take a prominent place. Wyandottes, Plymouth Rocks, and Langshans are also good kinds, for they lay well, sit occasionally, and are very fair table birds.

For winter layers choose Minorcas, Leghorns, and Plymouth Rocks. Keep them in a dry, warm house, and feed them regularly and liberally, remembering always that fowls dislike monotony of diet as we do ourselves.

Eggs should be collected twice daily—a sadly-neglected rule in many poultry-yards, leading to the sale of stale eggs at top prices, and the consequent falling off in custom.

Preparing Poultry for the Table.—"When fowls", says a leading authority, "are to be fattened for home consumption, three or four days' confinement and plenty of soft food, at least four times a day, will add to their weight; but for marketing purposes the fattening process is prolonged in this manner:—The birds are put into a clean lime-washed pen, placed where the light is dim, for the more quiet they are kept the more flesh they produce. For three weeks ground oats mixed with skim-milk, and enriched with beef or mutton fat, form the staple food, thrice a day. Buckwheat meal may also be given as an excellent flesh-former. During the fourth week the crammer is used, but many object to this on the ground of cruelty, and it can be dispensed with if a late meal is given at night. No stale food must be left about, and if the pen floor is not made of laths which allow the droppings to fall through, it must be cleaned out

with very great care. The water given should be very fresh and pure, but the quantity should not be great."

The birds must be plucked while still warm, to prevent tearing the breast skin. For market it is usual to beat down the breast-bone, as this is supposed to increase the plump appearance. Some dealers plunge their poultry when plucked into scalding water, but the result is scarcely, if at all, appreciable; careful singeing is a matter of more importance. (See also "The Poultry Yard", Div.-Vol. IV.)

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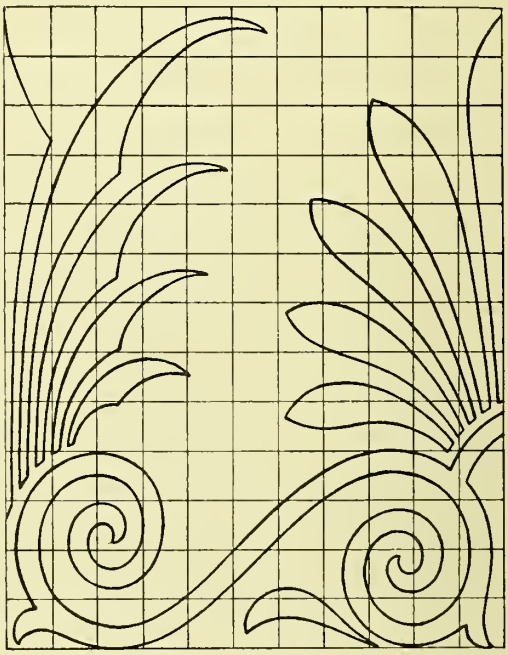

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In the fourth sound, systematic, and practical advice is given as to the management, in health and sickness, and the education, of children, and also on such important subjects as occupations for boys and girls, the ceremonies necessary on the coming out of a daughter, and the preparations and formalities necessary before and after a marriage.

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